



Linguistic Survey of India

Vol VIII

Part II

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY: NORTH-WESTERN GROUP

SPECIMENS OF THE DARDIC OR DISACHA LANGUAGES

(INCLUDING KĀSHMĪRĪ)

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INTRODUCTION

P. 1.

The word 'Dard' has a long history, and the people bearing the name are a very ancient tribe. They are mentioned by Herodotus, though not by name, and are the Dardai of Ptolemy, the Dardai of Strabo, the Dardae of Pliny and Nonnus, and the Dardones of Dionysios Periegetes. In Skt. literature they are spoken of as 'Dārka' or 'Dardo', which name is of frequent occurrence not only in geographical works, but also in the epic poems and in the Purāṇas. Kalhana refers to them under the name of 'Dārads' or 'Darads' and mentions them as inhabiting the country where we now find the Shiris who at present day are the main element of the Gilgit & Shona.

written, the word has a wider significance and included not ~~not~~ only the predecessors of ^{the} Thinis, but also the people whose seat was in the country that we now call Chitral. In other words, under the name of the Dardic ~~and~~ country, they included the wide mountainous tract between the Hindukush and the frontiers of India proper. Accordingly at the present day this tract is known as 'Dardistan' - a conventional and conventional name, though as it includes so much country not occupied by Dards proper, not strictly accurate. Following the example of the extended connotation of the word 'Dardistan', it is convenient to give the ~~general~~ general name 'Dardic' to all the Anglo languages spoken in this tract.

... This tract was once inhabited by tribes whom Skel. writers grouped together under the title 'Pitachis'. Clear traces of the languages of these tribes are to be found in the modern languages

of the locality..... This name ('Pis'cho languages')
is ~~unmistakably~~ eminently suitable, and is more accurate
than 'Dardic', but some of the speakers of these
languages take exception to it on the ground
that, in Indic mythology, the word 'Pis.' was also
used to connote a cannibal demon, and it must
be admitted that this was the most common acceptance
of the word. In such circumstances, it is wiser to
explain that a tribe speaking "Pis." language is not
necessarily of 'Pis.' descent. In some cases, indeed, it could
be easy to prove the reverse.

P2. This Dardic, or Pis' sub-family of Iranian languages
includes the following languages:-

A. - Kafir Group -

(1) Bask galo

(2) Wai-sla

(3) CC-0 Shashi Shekhar Toshkhani Collection. Digitized by eGangotri

(4) Ashkani

(5) Kalāshī - Pashai Sub-group, viz.:-

(a) Kalāshī

(b) Gawar-bati or Nersāti.

(c) Pashai, Laghmāni or Delgāni.

(d) Stri

(e) Tirāhi

B. Khō-wār, Chitrāli or Arūyā

C. Dard Group i.e. the Dard Languages, proper -

(1) Shina

(2) Kashmiri

(3) Kohistani

The first four languages of the Kāfir Group are all spoken in Kāfiristan. Babgati and Wai-ālā are closely connected, while Wār-Vari shows important points of difference from these two. In some parts of the Kāfiristan there is a change of

d to d) it shows striking points of agreement with
East-Iranian languages. As for the languages
of the Kalāshā - Pārsi sub-group, they have
certain points of agreement amongst themselves
and with the other known Kēfir languages,
but they have all fallen under the influence
of their respective neighbors. Pārsi is spoken
on the north side of the Kabul river, immediate
to the south of Cabrinia, and is affected by
Pashto. Kalāshā is spoken in the country between
the Bārgal valley and Chitral and is affected
by the Kō-wār immediately to its east. Gawar-
bati, spoken further south, on the ~~left~~ left bank
of the Chitral river, is not only affected by
Kō-wār, but also by the neighboring Kōshik
Kō-wār is the language of the Chitral
country and of the ~~neighboring~~ White in all

respects a more typical ~~the~~ Dardic language, it occupies a somewhat independent position in regard to the others, (P?) although it has some points in common with the Leapi group. From the Dard languages it is separated by great mountain barriers, and has little directly in common with them. Of all the Dardic languages, it is the one most ~~or~~ nearly related to the Iskandari Gilgiti languages spoken north of the Hindu Kush.

The Dard group includes the languages of Dardistan proper, in its narrowed sense, — that is to say, of the Shina speaking parts of Gilgit, Yusur, Chilas and the Indus and Swat Wodhistan. It does not include ~~the~~ the Hunza Nagar country to the north of Gilgit or the Chitral Wodhistan to its west.

With the exception of Kash., the languages belonging to the Dard group, proper, are at the present day almost entirely confined to this tract.

It is the finest example of the ~~Dard~~ Dard languages proper. Its standard form may be assumed to be that spoken around Gilgit, but it has several dialects, including those of Astor, Gura, and Chilas, and the so-called "Bhotia" of Dera and Dak Haim. The last named is spoken by an isolated colony of Shins on the Eastern borders of Baltistan, and is much mixed with Tibetan.

Kor. is the language of the Valley of Kor. & of the neighboring valleys. Although it has a Dard basis, it has come to a large extent, under the influence of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken to its south. It is the

the only one of the Dardic languages that has a literature.

Kab. is the original language of the Swat-Kohistan area, though the speakers are Shikhs, it is being rapidly superseded by Pashto. In the Swat-Kohistan (K) is now spoken by only a scattered tribes. It is divided into several dialects (Gāwari, Torwali, Chitral and Muzgash) These dialects are closely connected with Sh., but being on the Indian frontier, are much mixed with Pashto and Urdu, and are now no longer pure examples of Dardic speech.

The Pis To the readers of Indian lit. the Pis' gods are well-known. They are described as a class of demons, of terrific appearance and brutal character. The name is said to imply that they were created from flesh. From the history of the modern Dardic

legends are based upon sentences of cannibalism.] Various localities are mentioned as their habitat, some Skt. writers placing them in the N-W. & others in the Vindhya hills. A language, which was either a real form of speech and not an artificial gibberish, was attributed to them, and named Paisāchi. It was classed as one of the Pkts, i.e. as a debased Skt., and to this we owe briefly and incomplete accounts of it in the works of ancient Indian Grammarians. A sub-dialect of it was known as Chātīka-Paisāchīka, which carried the characteristic pronunciation of Pais. to an extreme.

This Pais. was not really a Pkt., in the usual sense of the word. It was a very ancient language, a sister, and not a daughter of the form of speech which ultimately developed as Classical Skt. As compared with the Skt., its principal

peculiarly is the hardening of soft letters.

Prof. Pischel in his Dict. Grammar, has maintained that this Pais' was the language of the country between the Hindu Kush and the present Indian ~~territory~~ frontier, in which the Kafir speeches, Kishwar and Dard are now the vernaculars. The researches of the present writer have shown that this is almost certainly the case, and that therefore this tract was the home of the ancient Pis'ochas, a wild tribe, owing no allegiance to, and having but a distant connexion with the Aryan conquerors of India. These Pis'ochas were not confined to the transfrontier highlands. They sent colonies down the Indus, and Skt. writers mention their existence in Kechanga, or the Western Panjab, and in Urukala, or Sind. It has been seen when dealing with the origins of these countries

(Lalula and Sinh), their evident traces of this Pariachi influence exist at the present day. From thence they spread into what is now the Bhil country, and also, perhaps, down the coast as far as Goa. [It must ^{be} explained that this view as to the home of the Pariahas has been combated by Prof Stec Conon, who maintains that it was in Central India. I confess that he has failed to convince me.]

Who were the Dards? The ethnic relationship of the inhabitants of these transfrontier highlands, whom we now call Dards, has been frequently discussed. The first to attack the question was Trappke, who says 'we find that the races of Dardistan are of Aryan origin, and speak Dialects which, on hearer investigation, will be found to have gone through the same process of development (or decomposition)

as it might ~~have~~ ^{upper} called, as their sister tongues
in the plains of India. In other words, Trapp
claimed that the Dard tongues (meaning the
Dardic tongues generally, and not the true Dard
languages), as a whole, belong to the Indo-European
family of Aryan Languages. Whether this conclusion
is correct or not, many of his ~~arguments~~ arguments are
based on wrong premises, for he continually
cited, as proofs of the Indian origin of
Dard words, closely corresponding words in Pashto
which he considered to be a ~~Indo-European~~ ^{Indo-European} language
like Punjabi or Sindhi. As a matter of fact
it is now known that Pashto is not a S. language,
but is a member of the Eastern branch of the
Iranian family.

Shaw, in his articles on the Pathan Ghilzai
languages, points out the close resemblance which

exist between them and Dard ^{speeches.} ~~languages~~. At the
time that he wrote, it had not been yet established
(that the Ghad. languages belonged to the East
Iranian stock. He says, 'it seems probable that
the separation of the Dards from the Ghaluchis
took place at a time when there still
existed a spoken tongue neither distinctly Indo-
nor distinctly Persian, but containing the germs of
both. If the Dard immigration from the north
had been a late one, (say at the time of the Greeks
or of the Muslims invasion), at a time when the
language spoken in the plain of Bactria had become
almost as strongly differentiated from that of
India as at the present day, it is not easy
to see how the speech of the Dards could have
taken its development on Indian lines, as it
has done. ^{p. 5} The fact of the tongues

under notice still retaining so much mutual
resemblance, together with a local connexion, would
imply that they were descended directly from one
and the same mother; while the fact of their belonging
to the opposite families shows that we must not seek
their common parentage either in the Indian or in
the Persian tongue, but in an early Indo-Aryan
mother-dialect, which alone would be capable of
giving birth to two such children from the same
womb. To put the matter in other words, it would
seem that the Gh. and Dard nations must have lived
and a life of its own, distinct from that of any
other branches of the Aryan race and changing less
fast than they, ever since they emerged from
the mazes of the Indian Branchion otom. They
are ~~the~~ true rivals, and yet they belong to
rival families, how they can be if that

generation in which the split occurred. In any later generation, they would either not be sisters, or, if they were, they would belong to the same branch of the family. It will be seen that Shaw also considers that the Dard belong to the Indian family of Asian languages, and not the European. Furthermore he suggests that the Dard languages, though belonging to the Indian branch, are not Sanskritic. There is a linguistic gap between them and their true Sanskritic neighbours, the languages spoken in the outer Himalayas, which, he says, may be supposed to represent a reflex wave of migration set up from the plains of India. The gap would in that case represent the whole progression in language made between the time when the Indo-Aryans were still a mere Central Asian tribe with its capital in the north of the Pamirs, and that when

their great migration accomplished. They were in possession of their Ssk. form of 'Language'.

Biddulph (Tribes of the Hindu Kush p. 158) would divide the tribes of the Hindu Kush into three groups. The first consists of those speaking the Gh. languages, the second of the Kts of Chitral and the Kafir tribes, and in the third group he would class the 'Shikhs', the Gams, Chitris, and other broken tribes of the Indus Valley, the Barchokharis (ie. Garwis) and Torvalaks of the Swat and Paghawan Valleys, and the broken tribes of the Khar Valley between Chitral and Khar. One point which is worthy of note in regard to the languages of these three groups is, that while those spoken by the Gh. tribes, ... appear to be ... for ... (Biddulph), those of

the third group show greater affinity with the
Skt. ... The kth-war languages stand apart
with those of both the groups, and will be found
I believe, to constitute an intermediate link
between the two.'

Tomarchek devotes a few pages to discussing
the characteristics of the Dard languages,
and ~~concludes~~ concludes, 'In spite of several ^{coincidences} ~~coincidences~~
in vocabulary, we should be careful not to connect
the Dard languages among those belonging to
the Hindu Kasi. The verbal flexions ~~is~~ are
principals similar to those which we meet
in the Panj., Sindhi & (Ceshmiri) and in its
complicated formations, especially in the distinction
between the masculine & fem. genders, offers a distinct
contrast to the very sterile conjugations of the
western dialects. ~~But~~ ^{For} a pair he is wrong.

It is now known that some of the Tib.-languages
do distinguish gender. The Shis and Daks
have (P.B.) evidently come to their present
homesteads from south, & through least,
& have never lost their connexion with goldfields
or the 'Indians of the Punjab.' [C.F.W. According
to Biddulph, op. cit. pp. 159, etc., the Shis originally migrated
from the north, viz. the Chitral Valley, & settled in
the southern valleys of the Himalayas. They then
moved northwards up the Indus Valley to their present
home, which probably happened at the time of
the Muslim invasion into India. This agrees with
the linguistic phenomena. It should be noted that
if the Shis were north along the Indus, they
could not have passed through Cash. To march could
not have ~~the~~ been. But work as here appeared the same you
as his work.]

16 The country in which the Dardic languages are vernacular has traits of languages (especially Pishti & Gh.) to its north-west, west & south-west, (W-Aryan (i.e. Sanskrit) languages to its south and south-east, various forms of Tibetan to its east, and to its north-east the ~~isolated~~ isolated & unclassified non-Aryan

Burm. dialect of Huma-Nager. Of these, Tibetan has affected only skins, the most eastern of the Dardic languages, and that, apparently only in modern times, by adding words and idioms as overlays with Burm. the case is reverse. Over the whole of Dardistan there is an overlay of Burm. words, such as those for 'rim', 'iss', 'woman's hair', & so on. These words are found in localities far from the present habitat of Burm., and the inference is that, before the arrival of the Pishti, the whole of Dardistan was inhabited by the ancestors

of the present owners of Fuhka & Nager. It is
not impossible that they were identical with
the Nāgas, who, according to Cassin
mythology, were the aboriginal inhabitants of
the Happy Valley before the arrival of the
Pisā; & after whom every mountain spring is
called. ~~is~~ is named. Be that as it may, at the
bottom of all the Dardic languages, there is a
much, and quite unimpaired, element of Bori.

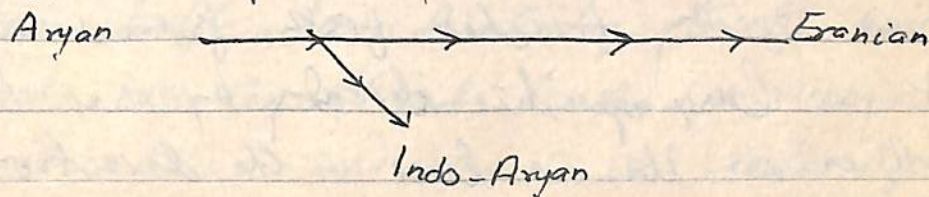
P. 7. Lashā, Gk. and the neighbouring
Indian languages are all of Arya stock, the first two
belonging to the Iranian & the third to the Indian branch
of that family. That the Dardic languages are also
of Arya stock is absolutely certain, the question is
whether we are to class them as Iranian, or as Indian,
or as forming a separate third branch by themselves.
I believe that the best is to classify them as
we are at liberty to adopt.

It is well known that there was in prehistoric times a language, known as Arya, spoken by the common ancestors of the Iranians and of the Indo-Aryans in the oasis of Khiva. [F.N. The original home, whence the Aryans separated from the ancestors of other Indo-European languages, is believed to have been the steppes country of Southern Russia.] Thence they appear to have followed up the course of the Oxus and Jaxartes into the high-lying country round Kokand and Bakhtrah, where a portion of them separated from the others, moving south, over the western passes of the Hindu Kush into the valley of the River Kabul, & thence into the plains of India where they settled, as the ancestors of the present Indo-Aryans. At that time common Arya language possessed certain definite characteristics which were

brought into India by these invaders, and which have in process of time developed, on Indian lines, into the characteristics of the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars.

The Aryans who remained behind on the north of the Hindu Kush and who did not share in the migration to the Kabul Valley spread eastwards and westwards. Those who migrated to the east occupied the Panjabs and now speak Gk. Those who went westwards occupied Merv, Persia, & Baluchistan, and their descendants now speak those languages (which, together with the Gk. languages, are classed as Iranian. At the time of the parting of the ways, when some of their number took the first step in their march towards India, the Aryans, as we have

seen, spoke a common language, but with the
 Iranians this language developed on different
 lines, so that at the present day the languages
 of the Persians and of Persia are very different from
 those of India. It will be simplest if we take
 the Iranian languages as the direct descendants
 in a straight line from the original Aryan stock,
 while the Indo-Aryan languages represent a
 branch which issued from the parent stem at
 a very early date. We might represent the state
 of affairs graphically as follows-

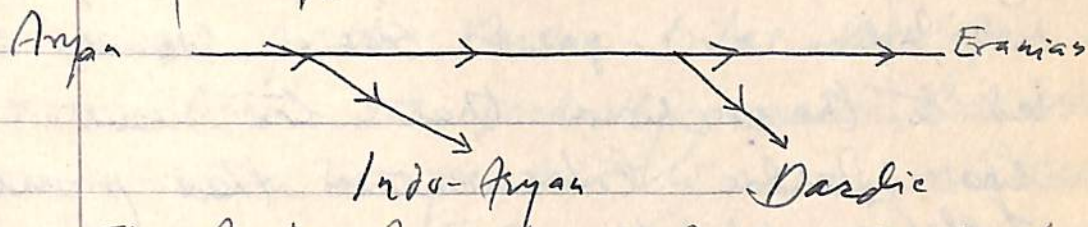


The Dardic languages possess many characteristic
 characteristics which are peculiar to themselves,
 [F.N. e.g. the change of medial t to t', of m to t',

and the retention of a short vowel before a simplified
compound consonant], while in some other respects
they agree with Indo-Aryan (e.g. the preservation
of sm, as against the Iranian change to hm), and in
yet other respects with (p. 8) Iranian Languages (e.g.
the preservation down to modern times of ant and st
and the change of ph to s). So the change of sp (hion
ship) to sp and sr, not to pp]. They do not possess
all the characteristics either of Indo-Aryan or of Iranian.
We must assume that at the time when they issued
from the Aryan Language, the Indo-Aryan languages
had already branched forth from it and that the
Aryan Language had already by that time developed
further on its own lines in the direction of Iranian,
but that development had not yet progressed so
far as to reach all the typical characteristics
of Iranian and still retained some but not all

the characteristics which it possessed when the Indo-Aryans set out for the Kabul Valley.

This may be represented graphically by the following branching diagram:-



The Indo-Aryans crossed the Hindu-Kush by the western passes, and, when they entered India by the Kabul Valley route, left what is now Chitral and Gilgit (i.e. Dardistan) on their left. Immediately to the north of Chitral over the Hindu Kush, communicating by the Dora and one or two eastern passes, there are the ~~the Dardic~~ languages like the Pamirs, the home of the Gholchah languages. Now, nearly every Iranian characteristic possessed

by the Dardic is shared by the Gk. languages, while, at the same time, those very Ershian Gk. languages have a few points in which they follow the Dardic languages in agreeing with Indians as against Ershian. We are thus led to the conclusion that the ancestors of the Dardic tribes entered their present habitat by the Dorā & neighbouring passes. The fact that the Dard languages proper are more nearly related to those of the Kāfir group than either of these is related to Khō-wār, further suggests that the latter represents the language of a later body of Dardic invaders, akin to the earlier ones. Khō-wār, though undoubtedly Dardic in character, possesses more points in common with Ghilghil than the others, and

separately separates the Kafirs from the Dards proper by a wedge of language presenting a greater number of distinctively Iranian features.

Once settled in their mountainous habitat the language of the Dardic tribes developed on its own lines and gradually acquired those characteristics which — are peculiar to it and are foreign to both Indian & Iranian. No one desired their law, and except for an occasional visit from a conquering army on its way to India, such as those of Alexander the Great (B.C. 327) or Timur (A.D. 1398) they have been left severely alone. The Skt. Grammarians writing at a time when in India, the Pkts were in flourishing existence bore record to the astonishing way in which Pakt had retained forms which in Pkt. had long passed into new phonetic forms, and the same is the case at the present day.

The modern Dardic languages still possess, almost unaltered and in common use, words which in India are hardly found except in Vedic Sanskrit. Compare Vedic *kṛikā vāka*, *kālakā* *kakā*, for instance, survival would be impossible in the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars.]

P. 9. Dardic & Romany. Notice may be drawn to the fact that eminent scholars have drawn attention to remarkable coincidences between the Dardic languages & the language of European Gypsies. We know that their original Indian language was some form of Dardic.

Dardic & Aśoka: I have said that the Mauryas sent out colonies down the Indus as far as Siṃha. In the middle of the 3rd cent. (B.C.) the emperor Aśoka of Pataliputra spread his famous rock inscriptions of his time, and it does not surprise

is that the one at Shāh-būrgarh is the modern
Yasir Zai country, close to, if not actually a, basic
territory contains many linguistic forms which
are related to Dardic. (See Linguistic Relationship
of the Shāh-būrgarh Inscriptions pp 75 & ff. of the
Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society)

KASHMIRI OR KÖSHIRI

P 233; The word leg. is the leg. of the Valley of
Kash. In a dialect form it has spread
south-west into the Valley of Ladakh.
& to the south it has flowed over the Pir
Panjal Range into the lower hills lying
north of the five Chats, where it reappears
in a number of mixed dialects.

The word Kesh. is Pers. or Hind. as derived
from the sh. Kōsh'mīl. It is not the same
used by the people of Kashmir. There are

country is called Kashir, the language Kashir.
This word itself is an excellent example of the
fact that the language belongs to the Dardic
sub-family, for it is like the change of 's'
to 'sh' or 'sh' would be impossible.

Linguistic Boundaries. Kashir is bounded on the
north by the Shina language of the Dardic group
of the Dardic sub-family. On the west it is
bounded by the Chikhat-Puchial dialect of
Lahore, a language affected by Dardic influence.
To its south it has, on the west, the
Bogri dialect of Peshawar; and, to the east,
east of Dogri, the Bhaddowal dialect
of Western Pahari. -- Bhad. is transitional form
of speech between Western Pahari & West, —
leaning more towards the former than
to the latter. — The latter is a

the former. To the south-east of Kāsh. we find Pādān, another Modern Pānt dialect of a character similar to that of Bled. On the east of the eastern side of Kāsh. & also a little to its N.E., going up towards the east of Shikā. lie a series of Tibeto-Burman dialects, Purik, Ladakh & Balti ~~are~~ are separated from the Kāsh. valley by insuperable ranges of mountains & it is very affecting its language.

Kāsh. has one true dialect - Kāshāwari, spoken in the valley of Kāshāwār, lying to the south-east of the valley of Kāsh. Kāsh. has also overflowed the Pir Panjal Range into the Jammu province of the State, and in the valleys between the southern hills of the range, between the watershed and the valley of the Chirab, there are a number of mixed dialects, such as Pōgū, ~~Singh~~ Singh, and Pāntani. The first two

of these represent Kāśmīr merging into Western Pahārī, while the third rather represents Kāś. merging into Dogrī. Farther east, over the greater part of the Riasi District of the State, there are more of these mixed dialects, about which nothing certain is known, except that the mixture is rather between Kāś. & the Chibhālī form of Lahndā.

P. 234. ... ~~There~~ In the standard Kāś. of the Valley, there are minor differences of language, which, however, are not sufficient to divide it into further separate dialects. For instance, the Kāś. spoken by Musaddhōmāns differs from that spoken by Hindūts. ... Although the speech of a minority of the population, their dialect is much purer to Kāś. than that of their N. brethren.

P. 235. [Linguistic Relationship] Kāś. belongs to the Dardic group of the Dardic Languages. It is most nearly related to Shina. It has, however, for many

centuries less subject to Indian influence, and its vocabulary includes a large number of words derived from India. Its speakers here maintain that it is of Skt. origin, but a close examination reveals the fact that, otherwise as was the lit. hist. of K., and learned as have been its Skt. Poets, this claim of Skt. origin cannot be sustained for the vernacular of the latter...

To the philologist K. is a language of great importance, as it is the only example of an Arya language in the condition of being converted from an analytic to a synthetic language.

²³⁸ The ... K. illustrates a further stage in the development of (the Indo-) language. The declension of nouns is in the main analytic. There are a few survivals of the ancient synthetic cases, but in the main cases are differentiated by

postpositions, as is Hindi. Thus we have gara, a house,
and garukh (for gara-kh), of a house. But note, here,
that the ~~ka~~ k^h has become attached to the gara,
and is no longer a separate word like the
Hindi ka. Garukh is now as much one word, and
a word in the genitive case, as the gar.
garikasaya or Lekh mansions. In other words
the declension is again becoming synthetic,
and the process has been 'first analytic (gara-
kh) and then again synthetic (garukh)'. But in
other cases the declension remains analytic,
as is gara-mansa, from the house, in which
the noun and the postposition are still two
entirely ^{distinct} ~~different~~ words and as yet show no
signs of becoming ~~one~~ into one. E.F.N. It may be
noted that we can see similar instances of the
development of analytic declension into synthetic

occasionally occurring is Panjabi. Thus the Phs. for
'in a house' is either the analytic phrase 'in a house' or the
synthetic equivalent - Similarly; the conjugation of
the (Cath. verb may be analytic. The word for
the past participle 'said' is 'dop', and for the past
tense, 'I said', we may have (as is the case
māi-nē (kāō) mē dop, literally, 'by me said'. But
we may also add a suffix meaning 'by-me' to 'dop';
so that the two become one word, - thus, dopun,
'I said'. Here we have a synthetic method of
conjugation is optional cause of formation. We
may have dopun, I said; dopun, he said; dopun,
he said, and so on, which is just as synthetic
as the Phs. dīn, dīnī, dīnī, with this difference
that in the case of Cath. we know exactly
how these synthetic forms came into existence.

If I am not mistaken, the above are not false languages

Of the Outer Circle, like Bengali or Marathi, we
find again a state of affairs similar to that
of Hind., but more advanced. In Hind. the synthetic
conjugation is optional. We may use either the
analytic *mē dop* or the synthetic *dopm*. But
Beng. or Mar. have gone a step further. The
analytic conjugation has been abandoned ^{and}
only the synthetic conj. is now employed. It is
no longer optional, but is now compulsory. We
have only the Beng. 'Kahilām' and only the
Mar. 'mhanilā', for 'I said', from the past
participles *kahilā-* & *mhanil*, respectively.
From these examples, we see the importance
of Hind. to the philologist. It is a language
caught, so ~~as to say~~ to speak, but is the
act of changing its nature from analytic
to synthetic, and thus shows how the

synthetic conjugation of Indian languages of
the outer circle, such as Pers. or Marc. has
arisen. ~~Hitherto there have been~~ We can now
watch Indian speech at its developments
from Silt to bilt. First synthetic; and then,
as is Hindi, analytic; then as is Kati, agglu-
-native or semi-synthetic; and then, as in Bengali
or Marathi, again synthetic; and so, as is the
Indian belief as to the fate of the soul, the
chain of *samsāra*, or weary round of transmigra-
tion, goes on perpetually. *One fast, aber ohne fast.*

P. 231. The first poem that can be dated
is the *Baṣasurvadhā*, the name of the author
of which is unknown to me. It is in the Hindi
dialect, and was written in the reign of
Sultan *Ẓāhir* (i.e. *alāudīn*) (1417-1469 A.D.). Other
poems of *alāudīn* are known

are the following:—Dvīkara Prakāśa Brattā was
alive during the eight years of the reign of
the Hindu King Subhijit Singh, who came to
the throne in 1786 A.D. He lived in Gajwār (the
Gulikāvātikā) quarter of Srīnagar, & wrote a
history of Rāma entitled the Rāmōpākhyaṇa,
with a sequel entitled the Lavalakṣaṇa.

p. 230. The Serampore Missionaries
published a version of the New Testament in 1811.
This was printed from type in Sāradā character.
Similar editions were issued at Serampore of
the Pentateuch (1827) and of Joshua & Kings (1832),
but the Bible was not completed. The British
& Foreign Bible Society published a version of the
New Testament in 1884, & of the Old Testament
with a revised version of the New Testament
in 1899, all in the Devanāgarī character.

In the year 1879 A. D. the late Pandit Ishwara
Kaula completed an excellent grammar of Kash.
i.e. Shik. Language entitled "Kashmiri'abdamrita".
This has been edited by the present writer, and
was published by the Asiatic Society of Bengal
in 1898. The same author was engaged on
a Kash. Shik. Dictionary at the date of
his death in 1893. The materials collected
by him for this purpose were

APPENDIX

P.24. THE LINGUISTIC CLASSIFICATION OF KASHMIRI

For upwards of two thousand years Kashmir has been a home of lit. learning, and from this small valley have issued masterpieces of history, poetry, romance, fable, & philosophy. Kashmiris are proud, and justly proud, of the literary glories of their land. During all these centuries, Kashmir has been subjected to the civilization of India proper. The Pis. tribes to its north and north-west remained a hostile and barbarous people, devoid of Indian culture & with no lit. hist. of their own. Kashmiris themselves maintain that their country was formerly inhabited by Pis., who were ultimately overcome by Aryan immigrants from India, and this tradition is borne out by the features presented by their language. That the lit. history of the country is the imprint

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Indian culture should not have reacted on the vernacular speech of the inhabitants is impossible. It has reacted most powerfully, and under that influence the language has become deeply imbued with forms and idioms derived from the languages of India proper. But all the time the basis, - the speech of the original Pis. inhabitants, - has remained firmly established, and it is upon this basis that linguistic science demands that classification be founded. It is no way follows from this that the Brahman inhabitants of Kashmir are of Pis. origin. The contrary is almost certainly the case. Tradition, etymology, and linguistic unite in asserting that they are representatives of an early immigration from India.

a position intermediate between the Slavic languages of India proper & the Iranian languages farther to their west. They thus possess many features peculiar to themselves, and others in which they agree rather with languages of the Iranian family. ~~However~~ It is unnecessary to discuss here those common to them & to Slavic languages, but, as regards the others, we shall see that they are also to be found in Kāśmīrī. That (p. 241) language possesses nearly all the features that ~~are~~ are peculiar to Dardic, and also those in which Dardic agrees with Ir. We therefore now proceed to examine, from this point of view, lexic. phonetics, accent, syntax, prosody, & vocabulary.

Ar = Arabic Av = Avestan Bbr = B ar l g a t h a r i g a t = Gujarati
 Gur = Gujarati Kāśmīrī = Kāśmīrī

ksh. badi, he will increase; but H. barhē.
dh becomes d. Skr. dughā-, Pr. duddha-, kṣṣ dōd,
mille; but H. dūdh.

bh becomes b. Skr. ~~bhā~~ bhrāta-, kṣṣ, bōy, brother; so
ld. bāyo, but H. bhāi.

All the mod. D. languages dispirit their
sonant letters in the same way as ksh. (as
indicated above).

One of the most typical characteristics
of modern D. languages is the frequent harden-
ing of original sonant letters, so that g becomes
k, j becomes ch, d becomes t, & becomes t, &
b or ~~or~~ becomes p. This was the universal rule
in the days when Pārsīcī ~~Pr.~~ Pr. was spoken.
In process of time two of the hardened letters
have again become softened, — as is the tendency in
the growth of our language, but, nevertheless,

Several instances of these hardened letters still survive, & in borrowing from other languages the tendency again comes into play, & small letters in borrowed words often become sibil. Ex. for kash. are:-

g becomes k. skr. kladga, - a sword, kash. kladall.

Similarly, in other mod. D. languages, we have Ber. kile, wai. kele, V. kili, Par. kali, all signs of the plural, and the same is origin as the Pers. gala. For borrowed words, we may quote Pers. lagām, kash. lākām, a bridle; Ar. 'idgāh', kash. yēd'ikāh, as 'Idgāl'; Pers. kāghaz, kash. kākar.

P. 243. j becomes ch or ts. Skr. kshudyate Pr. khujjai, kash. khōtsi, he will fear. Similarly Ber. has achu, a tear as compared with H. ājtu.

d becomes t. skr. dridha-, kash. drōt, firm

d becomes t. skr. dīpāt-, kash. dīpat, a bear.

black, lit. 'black' like *kṛa-kā* or 'like *kṛa-kā*'.
kṛa-kā or *kṛa-kā* is a corruption of the str.
kṛa-kā, the celebrated black poison drink
 by the god Śiva.

A marked feature of /kɔ:/ is consonantal epenthesis, i.e. the change is a consonant under the influence of a following vowel or semi-vowel. This also occurs in the mod. Dardic languages, but not in India.

Thus in 1st. k becomes ch before palatal
letters; as in *thok^u*, weay, *ben. thichäi hökh^u*, *dy,*
ben. höchh^u. So from the root *kar*, do, we have
Wai chā-st, he does; & the *st. möch*, before *i* is
connected with the *ster. muleh-*, a face.

Similarly, t & c change is less. lots, ach,
respectively, as in rät, a night, plur- röts^ü, püt^ü, a board,
plur- pack^ö. So, in Rauri P.R. etc; but V. Utch, the

lachi; Er. not yet, I come, compared with Br. also,
was also; skr. putra-, a son, faw. pūch. R. puchor
push; skr. strī, a woman, R. Chei or tchōg; R.
trā or Chah, see; & others

In Br. under such circumstances *ā* becomes *j*,
& *i* becomes *z*, as in *śid*ⁱ (son) greet, plur.
bayē; grand, a country, plur. *grānz*. Similarly
the H. *dhi*, a daughter, in H. is *Be*ⁱ; and the
H. *dā*, fur is represented in Ch. by *jū* or *lū*. *zh*.

In skr. under such circumstances *ā* becomes *j*, as in *angū*ⁱ, a finger, represented
in skr. *anguli*-. So the Pāli *gaḷ* (fem), sword,
is represented by *giji* in Br.

The skr. system of epenthetic changes
of vowels, though strange to nearly all the
languages of Ind. proper, occurs also in the Pacific
languages, although too little is known of these

to enable us to set out definite rules for them.
As examples we may quote the change of *a* to *i*
under the influence of a following *i* in the V. *i*zhi,
Gur. Itsin, /cl. and /ch. ech, an eye, as compared with
the original Av. *asi*. So the Beh. *duhti*, a head,
has its pl. *duhti*, for *duhti*, just as *a* is
pronounced *ai* in /cl. Again, the Skr. *āśya* - (ie.
āśa -), a month, becomes *i*sh in V & *i* is /cl.;
(the Skr. *sūrya* - (ie. *sūriā*), the sun, becomes *suri* in
Mg., *sēr* is Gur. in Gur. and *sūr* is /cl. As an
example of the epenthesis of *u*, we may quote
the /cl. *gūro*, for *gāro* or *gāno*, singing, in which
the *ā* has become *u* under the influence of the
following *o*. Similarly, (244) /cl. Beh. *broh*, a bullock; *h*
dōnō, a bull; Beh. *kōr* /cl. *kūrō* *h*. *kōn*, an
ear, and many others, *a* or *ā* has become *u* or *o*.
Many more examples could be quoted, but the

lachi; Er. not yet, come, compared with Br. also,
was also; Sk. putra-, a son, fow. pūch. Sk. pūcha
push; Sk. strī, a woman, Sk. Chai or tchig; Br.
chē or chah, see; & others

In Br. under such circumstances d becomes j,
& d becomes z, as in Gid^{ti} (fem) great, plur
bajē; grand, & country, plur. grinz. Similarly
the H. dhī, a daughter, is j in Br.; and the
H. dā, pus is represented in Br. by jū or w. l. z. h.

In Gsk. under such circumstances d becomes j, as in angij^{ti}, a finger, represent-
ing in Sk. anguli-. So the Pan. gall (fem), sword,
is represented by giji in Br.

The Gsk. system of epenthetic changes
of vowels, large strange to nearly all the
languages of Ind. proper, & found also in the Vedic
Language, & in the Sanskrit of the Kuru & Bharata
times.

to enable us to set our definite rules for them.
 As examples we may quote the change of *a* to *i*
 under the influence of a following *i* in the V. *izhi*,
 Gur. *Itsin*, *lch.* and *lch. ech*, an eye, as compared with
 the original Av. *asi*. So the Beh. *duht*, a head,
 has its pl. *duht*, for *duhti*, just as *a* *we*
 is pronounced *asi* is *lch.* Again, the Skr. *āśya* - (ie.
āśa -), a mouth, becomes *ish* in V & *i* is *lch.*, &
 (the Skr. *sūrya* - (ie. *sūria*), the sun, becomes *sūr* in
 My. *sūr* is Gur. *i* Gur. and *Sūr* is *lch.* As an
 example of the epenthesis of *u*, we may quote
 the *lch. gūro*, for *gāro* or *gāno*, singing, in which
 the *a* has become *u* under the influence of the
 following *o*. Similarly, ⁽²⁴⁴⁾ in Beh. *both*, a bullock; *Sh*
dōnō, a bull; Beh. *kōr* *lch. kārō* *Sh. kōn*, an
 ear, and many others, *a* or *ā* has become *u* or *o*.
 Many more examples could be quoted, but the

above are sufficient to show that K.R. shares its tendency to epenthesis with all the Dravidic languages.

P. 246. In K.R., when a word ends in one of the letters k, ch, ts, t, or p, that letter is aspirated and becomes kh, chh, tsh, th, or ph, respectively. There is nothing like this in V., but it certainly occurs in U., & probably in other D. languages. Thus, the K.R. krakhi - horse, becomes krakh, and similarly the V. masek - moon, becomes maseekh.

..... When a Pr. word contained a double-letter, this letter was, in the mid-languages of India proper, either retained ~~or~~ unchanged, or else reduced to a single letter with a lengthening of the preceding vowel in compensation. Thus, the Pr. bhakha, ~~bolding~~, became the Pr. bhāḥ, ~~bolding~~.

and the H. Bhāt... In *leśā*, *a* is *Lh. a* & *Sā*.
(two languages ~~not~~ much subjected to
Dardic influence) the ~~both~~ vowel was not lengthened,
although the double consonant was reduced
to single one. Thus, the same *Sler.* word. becomes
bhat in *Sā.* & *bha* in *leśā*. It also, perhaps,
reappears in *Bgr. - bita*, meat. There are
hundreds of similar examples in *leśā*.
Here we may quote from *Bgr.* to show how
typical this is of *D.* generally:— *Pr. uchā*,
high, *H. āchā*, but *Bgr. achā-stā*, to raise; *Pr.*
Chama—, skin, *H. Chām*, *Bgr. Cham*; *Pr. kattēi*,
he cuts, *H. kātē*, but *Bgr. kālā*, a knife;
Pr. Pitzhī, the back, *H. pith*, *Bgr. pti*.

(for *piti*) Similarly for the Dardic languages.

So far we have dealt with general
phonetic rules, but when we consider letters

in detail the connexion ~~between~~ between
Urd. & Dardic is equally manifest.
Thus: - In the D. group of D. languages
an ~~initial~~ initial k sometimes becomes g, as
My. gi, what? The same occasionally
happens in Urd. gash, eight, as compared
with Skt. kārān.

In India, when the letter v in Skt. forms the
latter member of a compound consonant, the
first member of which is a mute, it is elided
in Pr., & the first member is doubled. Thus,
Skt. palva - , ripe, Pr. Paluka, H. palika. In the
D. languages, including Urd., exactly the reverse
process is followed. It is the first member that
is elided, while the v is retained and is hardened
to p. Thus the Skt. palva - becomes the Urd.
pap. This is very like the Latin. This is the

mod. Indian languages, but in D. we have
cases like Bor. psūr, a father-in-law (skr.
s'ras'ara-); V pich, what? derived from a word akin
to Av. chusat. It will be observed that in
these the sibilant is preserved as well as ^{the} hardened
hv, and the same is the case in the Kchipusā,
a sister, connected with the skr. svasar. In Indian
languages this only occurred in Ap. Pr., where we
find such forms as pāi for skr. tvam, though other
cases of the change of v to pp, but no other
compound, with v for the second member, become p.

In Indian languages an original t between
two vowels is as a rule dropped, as in skr. kritā,
done, H. kiā; skr. pitā, a father, H. piz: skr.
śata, a hundred, H. san. P. 245. In Pāli Pr.
this t was, on the contrary, preserved, and this
rule is followed with great consistency in the

old / modified

~~mod.~~ mod. D. Languages, as well as less than
 from the pahali, katala, a house, we have
 Kh. khalā; Skr. kṭā, a father, Beh. tō,
 Wai. tala, and so others, Skr. kṛta-; Pers.
 kull-, done, ksh. kṛt (ie. kit), for; Skr. pāta,
 a bhūta-, become, ksh. (Sivaji) buta, was

In India a skr. tr. becomes t, as is Skr.
 putra-, a son, Ho pūt, Skr. gotra-, a clan,
 H. gōt, a son. In the N. Languages and
 ksh. it may remain unchanged, as is Wai. piṭṭa,
 Kl. pūtr, Skr. pōtr, a son; Skr. trīṇi, three, H.
 trī, white, compared with the Dr. Bhāgō, three,
 we have ~~Beh.~~ Beh. Kl. ksh. trēh, Wai. tr.
 trē, Kl. trōi.

We have seen that in the Dardic Languages
 tr. ~~always~~ usually remains unchanged. Oflex, however
 is the Dardic tr. in a family state,

changed to ch or ś. Thus, we have the Sk.
root Chak or Tak, to see; the Skr. gōtṛ,
a class, becomes got or gōṭ, in Sk. The Skr.
putra -, a son, is puṣṭ in Sk. & pūc in Gr.;
the Skr. stri, a woman, is chei in Sk. Similarly,
is the Rāṁṣaṁ dialect of lesh. we have chei or
trai, three, corresponding to the Sk. chē,
V. Chī, & My. chā. It may be noted that a
similar change occurs in the neighbouring Br. Gh.
languages, as in wakhi pōr, Parigōti pōṭ, & so on.

One of the most persistent consonants in
India is the letter m. In the mod. languages
it almost always survives, but in the D. languages
and in lesh. it is liable to elision. Thus, Skr.
manuṣa -, a man, is l. mōc, V. ś man. & here
we have the corresponding word mōti -, which
is said to be the word for man used by the

genus, the ordinary word being *manṣa*, which
 is borrowed directly from Skt. In other words,
 the original D. form has been discarded
 as vulgar in favour of the huge flavoured
 Skt. word. Another imp. example is the (Skt.) word
dyāṁ, money, which, strange to say, is a
 corruption of the Latin *denarii*, come to us
 through Greek & Skt. just through Greek direct.
 The Skt. form of the word is *danāra*.

The Hindu Pr. grammarians noted as a
 peculiar fact that in Pais. Pr. *ay* became
ā. This is not the case in India, where *ay*
 became *ā*, as in Skt. ~~form of the word is~~
dhāya-, H. *dhā*, paddy; Skt. *āya-*, H.
ā, another. But Ksh. exactly follows the
 Pais. Pr. rule. It has *dāyā*, paddy & several
 other words.

In mod. D. languages, when standing alone,
is frequently elided. Thus, we have lto Sk.
not mir, but Gur. not mi, die; pad. karam
kam, I do; Bsl. shei, the head as compared with
the skr. śiras; Sk. dāo, wood (skr. dāru-); Kl.
char, four (H. char). So in Kst., we have bösi,
kind of alum or ac, derived from the skr. blāṣkāni,
grāṅgel or gāṅgel, distraction; grōnd or gōnd, a leg;
and brōnth or bōnth, before. So in the Kesthāni
dialect of Kst. we have nyit for nirit, having
charged; + is lto Sitrāji dā. rich for rich, a
bear, and many others.

In Jchī, when s originally preceded another
consonant, it is usually dropped, as in H. sab, ale,
from skr. sāva-; but in the Dan. dialect it is
retained, & if any
consonant is dropped it is the second one. Thus,

kh. kār. kār. Shina

corresponding to the Skr. carva-, as ear, we have
Bsl. kār, kh. wai kār, kl. karō; to the
skr. gardabha-, as ear, we have kl. gardōh,
kh. gurdōgh; to skr. sūrya-, the sun, we have
kl. sūri, Gurm. suri, kh. sūri, My. swēr, swēr,
swēr; & to skr. sams-, as ksh. pōr.

P.246 In India, a sibilant now and then becomes h,
as in Skr. ēhasapāti-, H. ikhattar, seventy-one.
This change is, however, rare except in Ladak
and Sindhi, which are under strong Dardic
influence. On the other hand, in the Dard
group, including ksh., this change is very common,
and is subject to the rule that it is mainly
to an original s' or sh, s being rarely changed.
Moreover, the sibilant is retained before certain
vowels. A good example of this latter point
is the kh. shi (shin), like, denied

a flower, becomes *ke. pūṣ-ih*, *ke. pūṣh*; & the skr.
(*aśmīra-*), *leashmīr*, becomes *leashīr* is *ke. Śmīr*. Similarly
it becomes *s* in *śōs* for skr. *bhāskari*, a kind of
almshouse. There is nothing like this in India.

It has been stated that the D. languages
Marathi changes peculiar to Gr., especially East Gr.,
languages, and which are not found, or are rare, in
India. A few of these may be mentioned here,
as they are noticeable in *ke.* —

In East Gr. the change of *ch* to *ts* is common
So also in mod. D. and *ke.* The same change
occurs in Marathi, but only before certain
vowels. Here it occurs before all vowels.
Thus, while *ke.* & *Paṣ.*, have *kech*, the *ke.* *kech*, *kei*,
has *keints*. Compare H. *chār*, four with Gr.
tsār, *ke. tsār*; H. *pāñch*, five, with Gr. *pañts*,
ke. pañts, *Paṣ.* *pañts*, *ke. pañts*, *ke. pañts*, *ke. pañts*,
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iron; skr. Chāgala- with tohāwale^u, a goat.

Another very similar change, that of j to z is frequent in Erssias. It is very common in Kōb. One ex. will suffice. Compare skr. jīva- life, with Ger. zies, alive, Lat. ziv, life. There is a similar change in the other Marāṭhī, but not before i.

The change of de to l is regular in Eastern Br. It is common in D. Veron, and is also found in other D. dialects. An interesting ex. is the Pers. māder, a mother, which corresponds to Sk. mātr, Lat. l, but not l, becomes j before i-mātr, so that we get māj, a mother. From Sk. mātr, a secondary masc. is formed, viz. mātā, a father, i.e. father, the Lat. form of which is māt.

P-247. In Eastern Br. g is frequently changed to g, as in the verb to go.

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Buget, the back, becomes Bgr. pti, or pato,
Gur Bgr. pato, behind, and so on in others,
just as in the East-Br. Balsochi it becomes phut.

In mod. Indian languages, the sh of the
Skrt. shat, sin becomes ch, as in the H. chha,
Beng. Chhay, Panj. chhē. The Dardic languages,
including Ur. follow the Br. method of changing
the initial kh of the Av. kshōvar, sin to sh,
instead of using the Indian ch. Thus we
have Bgr. sho, Wai shū, V ushu, Pakh. sh^h,
Kl. shoh, and so on, which agree with the
Ur. shah. There is nothing like this in India.

In mod-Br- dialects, an original s sometimes
changes to ch, as in the Kashtāri chūm for
the standard Dgr. Shām, evening. This, also is
not uncommon in D. & in Ur. Thus, the Av.
asī-, as in asī, is represented by Bgr.

Wai achē, kl. ēch, ksh. ~~Tham~~, achē². So skr. ś'ung
empty, becomes ksh. chhō²; skr. root pās see is
represented by the Sh. pach; skr. āśu-, a tear,
is ṣṣ² in ksh., but achy is Bsk., i skr. śiveta-,
white, ksh. chhot². In India, the reverse is the
case, chh. often becoming s, and the change from
s or sh to chh, as in the H. chh, is very rare.

Finally ksh. has certainly phonetic changes
of its own that are quite foreign to India. In
India, da becomes dd, as in the Beng. pōddo, from skr.
padma-, a lotus. In ksh. this becomes m, as in
the word pam- pōsh, a lotus flower. Again, in
skr. ~~ḍ~~ ḍ becomes l (a thoroughly un-Indian
change), as in gal, a shawl, connected with
the verb galdā-, and with the Bsk. gijjē, speed.
This word is also heard, under the form gal,
in Punjab. ḍ becomes ḍ, as we know

at or - $\frac{2}{2}$

Strongly influenced by Darb. Skr. itself is post-vedic times borrowed it from Pkt. is the form of gāli, from which there is a series of modern Indian derivatives meaning 'abuse'.

Accidence.— Turning now to accidence, in the first place it should be noticed that like ~~for~~ Gr. language, BSL. possesses a suffix with the force of the indefinite article, equivalent to the Prs. yā-e-wahat. Just as in Prs. ī (accident) is suffixed, so in BSL. ā is suffixed. Thus, Prs. yāl-i, BSL. alikā, a certain one, a. It is hardly necessary to point out that there is nothing like this in Indic; but the same phenomenon is presented by BSL. as in palē-i, a servant. The main principle of the decision

A noun which is very similar is Indian languages,
 Ev. languages, & in Dardic. We may, however,
 point out that there are some important
 differences of detail between both Indian
 languages. Thus, in all the northern languages
 of northern India, strong masc. nouns such as
 ghōrā, a horse, end in the nom. sing. in ā,
 and in the nom. pl. in ē (ghōrē) In both,
 the corresponding noun end in u-mātrā in the
 sing. and in i-mātrā in the pl., as in gurī, a
 horse, plur. gurī. Moreover, all masc. nouns have,
 in both, a dative sing. ending in s (as in tsūras,
 to a thief, guris, to a horse), and a dative
 pl. in n (as in tsūras, to thieves, gurēs, to
 horses). In some Indian dialects there are
 oblique pls. in n, but there is nothing like
 the both oblique sing. in s. It will be seen

~~Marathi~~ Marathi, for to the south. Further, Mar.
has cases of the agent- (as is guri, by
a horse) and ablative (as is guri, from
a horse), to which there is nothing

corresponding in India. The s-ative is most
peculiar to Mar., but also ~~exists~~ exists in
Kl. & Pr., and also perhaps in Pl.,
where it has the force of the agent.

248. To add definiteness to the meaning
of the cases, postpositions are employed
in Indian & prepositions in ~~Dr.~~ European & the
Dr. languages. Both are used though less
prefer the former. Of the postpositions,
one or two only occur in India, the
rest being peculiar to Dr. The less postposi-
tions of the genitive, and, ~~and~~ ^{ut}, and ~~the~~ ^{ut},
all have parallels in India — a relative

A sand^h being as found in the Marwari, Lado,
Aah^h in the H. lea, and of us in the Gaj. 50. Similarly
it is possible to compare many in, with the H.
māh, but it more nearly resembles the
Dardri V. mājā the My. mar. But the other
port positions are either quite peculiar to D.
or are borrowed from Pr. As Dardri
examples, we may quote kyul^h (an adj.),
for; putch, for; pēth, on; kēth, is; and
pēthā, from.

Ordinary adjectives here call for no remarks,
but the less. Nouns are so decidedly D.
& so distinct from the forms current in Ind.
that some attention must be paid to them. Three.
One. This is ak - It may be either Indian, Et. or D.
but is more like Pr. & Gur. yak than Indian ek.

Two z^h - In Ind. it becomes z, as that the word

is connected with the Bg. dinow tho kh. jū, rather than
the khia dō.

Three toeh. This regular D. Cf. Bg. kel. toeh wai trē,
Sh. trē kh. troia and so on. India has trē, & the like.
Four, Hür. The ō is D, as in kh. Gw. chör, Gur. hür,
Sh. Chör. India has ā, as in chār.

Five, pānts. This may be Indian, G. or D.

Six Shēh. This is D, as in kh. Gw. Bg. Shō, wai, Shū,
V. ūshu, Paoh, sh⁹, Gur. Shoh, kel. Shoh, Sh. shoh,
and so on.

Seven sāt, This, with the short a, is D; as in
Par. Gur. kel Gw. sat, Pl. Satt & so others. India
has sat.

Eight, ōth or aith. This may be Ind. or D; but the
vowel is not Ind.

Nine, nav. This may be Ind., G. or D.

Ten, dash. This is D, with the typical change of
s' to h

Twenty, and, The same schasis apply.

thundred, The same schasis apply.

From the above we see that all the first ten numerals may be of D. origin, & that some of them must be some are distinctively not Ind.

The first two personal pronouns may be shown as follows:-

I	boh	thou,	hah
me	me	thee,	hē
my	myōh ^u	thy,	chyoñ
we	as ⁱ	ye,	tōh ⁱ
us us,	asē	you,	tōhē
our	sōh ^u	you	tuhond th

It will at once be seen that not one of these forms agrees with the corresponding Indian pronouns.

p. 249

Continued by B. D. Banerjee we have

249.

	This	That near	That (far)
Sing. nom	yih	huk	sah
Dat. (animate)	yini's	huni's, ini's	tahut
Dat. (inanimate)	yith	hukh, alk	tall
Plur. Nom.	him	huh, am	him
Dat.	himas	huhas, ahas	himah

Again it is not necessary to draw attention to the various points of difference between the *Ind.* forms. It may be especially pointed out that *Ind.* has nothing corresponding to the distinction between the proximate and remote demonstrative pronouns, although it once existed in *Sk.*

While some of the above forms are *Ind.*, they have all their cognates in other *D.* languages. The above remarks ^{also} apply to the other pronouns.

As regards verbs, the general principles of conjugation are on the whole the same in *Ind.* and *Sk.* While

✓
The present tense of the verb substantive, based on the
participial form *chhu*, he is, is also to be found
in India, the past tense, formed from the root *as*,
sit-, in O.S., he was, is not at all used in that
sense in that country. [It is not the same as the
root *as*, by which does occur a several (ed. *agras*).]
This root *as* is, however, common in D. Thus, for he
was, we have *Myat as*, *Gorash*, *les*, *destai*, *le-asit*,
and so on.

In the conjugation of the ordinary verb, the
present participle ends in *ah*, as *marah*, striking,
a form *mar-* does not occur in I.O.; but this
has many D. relatives, such as *Bar vitar*, *Shu*
Chutina, *le bimar*, all meaning striking.

While the Indian verb has only one past
participle, I.O. has three, - one (*mogah*, *amogah*)
~~past~~ struck, *chitah*, *chitah*, *chitah* in the past, *chitah*

+

another (māryō) indicating past time is definitely,
and a third (māryō) indicating remote past time. One
of these (māryō formāryō) has the same origin
as the past tense of 1st. Pers. māryau, but the
others have had an independent line of growth.
Although we do not yet know enough in regard to
other D. languages to determine whether the
meanings of the various forms of the past participles
is then, it is certain that waigk. st. & hy have
all been each two. Thus, waigk. has viā & viāsta, &
gaigk. gaigiste, & Chit & Chiego & hy have a katzgk.
all meaning 'stuck'.

The 1st. infx is built on the same lines as
in 1st. D. languages, i.e. it ends in ra (hārah), which may
be compared to with the 1st. ending in ra (hārah) in
many D. languages, the 1st. ends in la, but in
V. it ends in la (hārah) as

is *paṣanti-k-ik*, to strike. The *terhikari* (Nepalese) especially (Ld).

In the form of the tense test. differs widely from (Ld) languages. The old present, a tense that survives alike in (Ld). Pers. and D. ~~is~~ India generally (250) has the force of the present subjunctive, but is lost. It is used as a future. In its conjugation it shows little relationship with (Ld) languages.

Thus to compare (Ld) with H, we have:—

Sing.	1	māra, ^{ter} I shall strike	māra, ^H I may strike
	2.	mārah.	māre
	3.	māri	māre
plur.	1.	māraṁ	māre
	2.	māriṁ	māre
	3.	mārah	māre

On the other hand the (Ld) conjugate closely follows that of the (Ld) languages. The same remarks apply to the inflexion.

250

As regards the participial tenses, they are made in the D. languages on the same principles as in India. A present and imperfect are formed from the present-participle conjugated with the appropriate tenses of the verb substantive, & a perfect and pluperfect from the past-participle conjugated with the same.

2. *Isk.* has three past tenses, one corresponding to each of the three past-participles. Indian languages, of course, have only one. Some Indian languages form the past tense by adding pronominal suffixes to the past-participle, as in the Beng. ~~মারিলা~~ *mārilā-m*, stuck-by me i.e. I stuck. In *Isk.* the same procedure is followed, but with the important difference that the suffixes do not form a necessary part of the word. They are removable, and may be used or omitted at the speaker's

desires. Thus, he may say either mōrum, struck-
by-me, or mē mār, by me struck, for 'I struck'. This
affects the whole structure of the language.

Syntax - In the order of words in a sentence,
Ksh differs altogether from Indian languages.
In the latter the subject comes first, then
the object or predicate, & last of all the verb;
but, in ordinary Ksh. the verb precedes the
predicate, as in Pss. Thus is Ksh. they say:-
suh chhu gābul mahanyar
he is clever man

while in H. they say:-

wōh hōṣṭgār ādmī hai
he clever man is.

Now, the order of words used by a man in
speaking indicates the order of his thoughts.
Hence, the order of thought in Keshmir is

different from the order of thought is Indian.

Prosody. — In prosody, although the whole literary history of Ksh. is intimately connected with Skt., mod. Ksh. has abandoned Indian metres. The metres used are ^{all} Gr., and what may be called the home metre of the language, employed even in Hindu epics like the Rāmavatara-chanta, is the well known Pr. metre called Bahri-Haraj.

P. 251. Vocabulary. — Finally we come to the question of vocabulary. It is on this that the claim that Ksh. is a Skt. language is most strongly based, and, if languages were classed according to vocabulary, the claim would be difficult to controvert. But it is well known that vocabulary cannot be used as a basis of linguistic classification.

If it were, High Urdu would have to be
classed with Pers. as an Ir. Language, for the
great majority of its words are borrowed
from Pers. So, if vocabulary were the test,
the lsl. speakers by Muslimans, who form
nine-tenths, and more, of the population
of the valley, might be classed as a form of
the same language.

As has been stated above, Kashmiri has for
at least two thousand years been under Indian
literary influence. It is the only one of the
D. languages that has a written character
and that has a literature. For centuries it
was the home of great slr. scholars, and at
least one great India religion, Saivism, has
found some of its most eloquent teachers on
the banks of the ^{the} Indus. Some of the

greatest Shv. forces were born in and arose in
the valley, & from it has issued in the
Shv. language a world-famous collection of folk-
lore. Under such circumstances it would
be extraordinary if the great bulk of
folk vocabulary were not closely connected
with the vocabularies of the neighboring Slavic
languages, and such, indeed, is the fact.

Nevertheless, some of the commonest words,
words that are retained longest on any language,
however mixed, and that are seldom borrowed,
such as the earlier numerals, or the words for
'father', 'mother' and the like, — are closely
allied to the corresponding Sh. words, and are
therefore of D. origin. The following is a list
of some Sh. words which have cognate forms in
Lat. Some of these words also occur in

Indic languages, but they are also D., and are examples of the same form appearing in both families of Aryan speech.

Eng.	Shikō	Cochin
and	churko	brok ^u ✓
after	phat ^u	pata ✓
anger	rōsh	rash — i ^u ✓
army	sī	sīh ^u ✓
arrow	kon	kān ✓
aunt (father's sister)	papī	pōph ✓
" (mother's ")	mā	mās ✓
autumn	sharō	harud ✓
bad	lecho	koch ^u ✓
be	bo-	bōw- ✓
bear (the animal)	ich	ichch (Sīrājī) ✓
beam	dāi	dōr ^u ✓
between	trajj	ma ^u , is ✓

Tung	Sh.	Ksl.
bite	chup - (verb)	tsop ² (noun)
blow	phū -	phuk ⁵ -
blue	hilo	nīlā -
bone	ati - ¹⁻²	adij ⁱⁱ -
be born	jo - 4	zē - ✓
boil	bēye	biyē a sec nd time ✓
bow	dānū	dūñ ⁱⁱ ✓
boy	phudār	phur ²
break	put -	phut ¹ -
breath	shā [~]	shās [~] -
brown	gūro	gurūt ³ ?
bull	dōro	dāro
camel	ūt	ūth [~] -
cold	shilalo (qit ²)	shatīl
cow	go	gāu ✓
cracked	kabā	hol ²
cow	ko ⁵	kāu.

Eng.	Ph.	Dev.
do dance	nat-	hats- ✓
day	des	dōh ✓
death	marēh	mārs ✓
die	mū	mar ✓
dog	shū	hū ✓
door	dar	(indialectal) dar - shūh ✓
dry	(chulo	hōleh ✓
ear	kon	kan ✓
earthquake	būygal	buñul ✓
eat	ko-	kē- ✓
eclipse	grā	grāh ✓
elephant	hasto	hast ✓
escape	much-	mōkat ✓
eye	āchi	āchi ✓
face	mukh	mōkh ✓
far	dūr	dūr ✓
father	mōtā, dēkh	mōlī, bāba

Eng.

Sh

Legl.

finger

agūz

ong²zū

flower

ānt (7)

ōtū

foot

pā

pā²

forget

amust

ma²sh

fortnight

pa²ch

pa²ch

fox

lōy

lō²h

give

di-

di- (5)

gold

son

sō²n

grape

jack 2 2d

da²ch

grass

ka²ch

ka²ch

great

ba²do

bā²d²

hand

hat
~~domo~~

at²he
~~das~~

handle

domo
~~bat²~~

bat² da²

hot

tā²ts
grist²

grist², tot²

Industrious

grist²

grist², afan²

kil

mā²r-

mā²r-

knee

bat²

kō²h²

Eng.	Fl.	Lepl.
language	bāsh	bāshē, child ^{ny}
lay down	po-	pāw-
lead (metal)	rāng	hāg
leaf (of tree)	pāto	pat ^{ar}
learn	rich	hē chh
lip	ōnti	✓ wouth
little	chor	Chon ^{ny} , empty
man	man ^{ny} cho	✓ "nichongue"
meal	mōb	māz
mile	dut [✓]	dōd [✓]
moon	yūh	zūh
mouth	māz	mās
move	mūt [✓]	matā ^(mud)
mother	māl [✓]	mōj ² (for mōl ²)
mount	āi	ōs (for āsi)
named	hah ^{ny}	✓ hān ^{ny}
name	hāu	✓ hāu

English

low

high-

hose

old

place

plough

pride

rain

recline

recluse

right (not left)

rise

saw

scatter

seed

shoulder

silver

Shikā

lowā

rātī

rātō

prōnō

dist

hat

badgā

karēlo

lay-

far-

deskins

uth-

sigel.

shij-

bi

piow

rip

low

now ✓

rāt- ✓

našt

prōn ✓

dist ✓

ala ✓

bajēr (for badgār)
quarries

kar-

lab ✓

phēno

jackchink ✓

wōth- ✓

sēk- ✓

chlik-

byōl ✓

phugāh

rōp ✓

Eng.	Fl.	Ind.
sitting	gai	gəv-
sit	bai-	bēh-
smoke	dūm	d'h-
know	hin	shān
son	puch	putr-
soul	jīl	zū
spade	bel	bēl
strength	shar	hēket
run	surī	siṛi
swell	māro	mā dūr ²
smooth	pīchilīk	pīshul ²
take hold	lan-	lan-, pull
tear (v.b.)	bāer	trat-
throat	shoto.	hot ²
today	acho	az
tongue	jip	zəv
tooth	hā	dand

26 + 174 =

$$\begin{array}{r} 1026 \\ 26 \\ \hline 128 \end{array}$$

Engl.

sl.

hsl.

vein

nār

nörē -

village

giron

gām -

wall

kut

kut^h, k^h vōm -

weep

ro -

riw -

wife

gros

garit^h, h^h g^h rōt^h

widow

darē

dör^h

wine

mo

mas

wife

sāti

sāti -

womas

chai

trai -

wake

kōm

kōm^h -

wife

lik -

lēk -

yes

āwā

awā -

We therefore arrive at the following conclusion:
 Est. is a mixed language, Laryngal in basis a
 language of the b. group, the b. family
 allied to Shikā. It has been powerfully
 influenced by Persian and Lit.

and the greater part of its vocabulary is
have of Indian origin and it is allied to
that of the Sketic Indo-Aryan languages
of North India. As, however, its basis, in other
words, its phonetic system, its accent, its
syntax, its prosody, — is Dardic, it must be
classified ^{as} such, and not as Sketic form of
speech.

we occasionally find forms, such as, a present participle in *an*, instead of *ān*, that no longer exist - is *ṣṭ. lān*, but which have survived is *kashṭ*.

The *kashṭ* character is a variety of the *Takri* character used in the hills of the Northern Punjab. Its phonetic system is not complete. There are few signs for the medial vowels, and as a rule long medial ~~vowels~~ vowels and sometimes even short medial vowels are represented by the initial forms. It is as if we were, in writing the *Nāgarī* character, to represent the word *bāt* by *āṭmā* - instead of *बत*. There are, it is ~~these~~ true, forms for medial *ā*, medial *ī*, medial *u*, and medial *ō*, but these ~~are not used at all~~ *āṭmā, āṭmā, āṭmā*, and,

particularly, the sign for medial *ī* can be used for almost any vowel. Moreover, the initial forms are often used instead of them.

Kashitwārī Alphabet-

प ३५५

a ā	म	ka	अ	da ^{ra}	३
i, ī, ē	८	kha	आ	dha	२
u, ū, o, ɔ	८	ga	इ	rha	३ ३
ai	म ८	gha	उ ५	ha	=
ri	cha	ए	ta	३
ka	२	chha	३	tha	म
kā	२ म २	ja	३	da	२
ki, kī	३	za	३	dha	२ ३
ku	३	jha		ha	म न
kā	३ ८	t.	२	pa	५
kō	२	th.	०	ph	५
kaṇ	२ ८	ta	३	ba	५
kāṇ	२				

bha	१	va	५
ma	२	sha	३
ya	४	sa	४
ra	५	ha	३
la	६		

P. 35. Is writing kəshfawari, ^{consonantal spelling} ~~its own~~ is also very capricious. Special difficulties seem to have been experienced in writing the fricatives ts and tsʰ. They are usually represented by ch & chʰ, as in kəsh, but sometimes they are written s or even z.

sa'alo writes for tsilawali & good;
gase writes for gabses, I will ex. 2a's for
tsi, by thee.

P. 315. PRONUNCIATION. — Vowels in Greek are

CC-0 Shashi Shekhar Toshkhani Collection. Digitized by eGangotri

Although epenthesis is not caused out with the
strictness observable in lost., we sometimes find
vowels, even where they ^{and} would not change in lost.

Thus samarus, to become, ^{and} samurus, in which
the second a has become u under the influence
of the u in the next syllable. Similarly mulka-
sus, for mulka-sus, of the country. lag^a or
log^a has actually become logū, in ²addition logū,
he began to say,

Again the lost. Sandi (abl. of sandi, of) is
sini in ¹lost-wāsin in which the a has become
i under the influence of the following i.

In lost. i & ē are frequently interchanged.
So also in ¹lost we have both isini khātara for the
sake of this one's sake; and fisinē khātira
for his sake. In khātira & khātara we
also see an optional interchange of u -

accented a and i, and the same appears in
 kyāri or kyāri; why? Even an accented i,
 following y, may become a. Thus we have
 both yēt and yāth corresponding to the
 kōn yith, for this. This was first an instance
 of the change of i to ē, so that yith
 becomes yāth. In kosh. we know that yēt is
 really yāth, so that the change of yēth to
 yāth in kosh. is easy. kōshās (kōsh) kōshōs
 'kōsh), Another example of the change of
 i to ē. In fact the kosh. ē appears under several
 forms. It follows kosh. i is wāshōh (for
 wōshyāh), for so many years - also iēh
 wāshōh. i, ē, iēh

ō > a : wāthi, having answer, wōthi (kosh. wōthith)

In kosh. whenever a word begins with i or ē, a y is
 prefixed. CC-0 Shashi Shekhar Toshkhani Collection. Digitized by eGangotri

i or ē pronounced as if a faint y precedes it. Thus, *lētshāh*, something, is often heard as *kyētshāh*, and *lchēma*, I shall eat, is often heard as *lchēma*. This prothesis of y before i or ē is still more common in *Cast.* [though not indicated in writing]. Ex. ³⁴⁶ *tyēsūn* for *tīsūn*, his, & *tyēsini* for *tīsini* (fem. sing. dat.), in which latter ē has also been substituted for i. *dyim* for *din*, give me.

panayic (for *panayir*) *tyēsūn* *badd²* *sher²*, his elder son, *tīsūn* *māh²* *kanāra* *nyit*, his father having come outside. *tīnē* *khātra*, father's house. *tīs*, & *tīs* *bōb*.

All *Cast.* words after *ew* in i-mātrā & e-mātrā, but these are used most capriciously. A final i-mātrā does not seem to occur, i-mātrā being everywhere used instead.

hōnī; dogs, & hūñī, a bitch, kōrī, a girl, mīānī
(called mīānī), pūh-ñī, rishī, bulls, shurī, sons—

But this ī-mātrā sometimes becomes an
ordinary i, as in mātī, fathers, māhī, men,
āisi, they were; and i sometimes even lengthens
to ī, as in shurī, sons, hundī, kisses.

u-mātrā: badhī or badī, great; bhāy, a
brother; ghur, a horse; lagī, began; māhī, a man,
māhī, but mātī & mātī, mīānī, my but mīānī
mīānī; rishī, a bull; shurī, a son, bhāy, thy; but
bhāy;

But the final u-mātrā is often dropped,
: mīānī māhī, my father; mīyāl, he was sick;
samī, he became

p. 341. Or it may become a full u, as in māhū,
a man; : mātī or mātī, a father, but mātī;
bhāy u, & bhāy u, but bhāy, mātī, he was

Or it may be lengthened to \bar{u} . This is always the case in the word $\bar{a}su$, he was, whereas $\bar{t}hu$, he is, is always written with the i short.

$\bar{z}abhu$ $\bar{t}ag\bar{u}$, he began to say, also $\bar{t}ag\bar{u}$, and " $\bar{a}d\bar{a}r$ $\bar{g}at\bar{t}hu$ $\bar{t}ag$ " \bar{na} , he did not begin to go inside.

Or it may become \bar{o} or even $\bar{w}\bar{a}$, as in $\bar{d}ad$ or $\bar{d}ad\bar{o}$ the back; $\bar{w}at\bar{s}$, $\bar{w}at\bar{s}y$, or $\bar{w}at\bar{s}w\bar{a}$, a calf; $\bar{z}\bar{e}$ or $\bar{z}\bar{w}$, the tongue $\bar{m}\bar{u}d$ " $\bar{m}ut$ ", $\bar{m}u\bar{g}$ " $\bar{m}ut$ ", $\bar{r}ac\bar{k}$ " $\bar{m}ut$ ", $\bar{r}\bar{a}w$ " $\bar{m}ut$ " $\bar{s}a$ \bar{z} " $\bar{m}ut$ ", but actual forms: $\bar{m}\bar{u}d\bar{m}ut$, $\bar{m}\bar{u}d$ " $\bar{m}ut$ ", $\bar{m}u\bar{g}\bar{t}\bar{m}ut$, $\bar{r}ac\bar{k}\bar{m}ut$ or $\bar{r}ac\bar{k}$ " $\bar{m}ut$ ", $\bar{r}\bar{a}w$ " $\bar{m}ut$ " $\bar{s}a$ $\bar{z}\bar{m}ut$.

Epenthesis of vowels occurs in $\bar{K}\bar{o}l$ as in $\bar{t}hu$ but is more capricious.

In $\bar{t}hu$ when \bar{a} is followed by \bar{i} - $\bar{m}\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$, and in certain cases by the \bar{i} - $\bar{m}\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$. (The $\bar{z}\bar{u}d\bar{d}\bar{h}\bar{a}$)

by i, the a is not changed, but the i-mātrā or
i is sounded immediately after the a as well
as in its proper place. Thus, badⁱ, great (nom. plur.)
is pronounced as ba'dⁱ. Similarly kairi; to a bracelet,
is pronounced kairi. Traces of this ksh, where the
sig. det. sig. of akh, one, is written aikis (alekhis).
Elsewhere the a remains unchanged, as in parais, to
his own, or bajⁱ, great (nom. sig. fem.).

In ksh., where a is followed by a-mātrā it
becomes o, as kor^o (forkar^u), he was made. The
o remains unchanged even when the i-mātrā becomes
u as owing to the addition of a suffix, as in
koru, ~~to~~ In ksh., the same change sometimes
occurs as in koru. At other times the a becomes
ō as in kōru, and at other times it becomes
ō, as in ^{zabur} ~~kōru~~ togi, he began to say. Most
commonly ~~the a is changed~~ as in koru,

marus laqur, I began to die; rather (for sar²) he remained; rather, he said.

In lesh, when a is followed by i-matra, or by i, it becomes ö, as in mölⁱ, fathers, möriv, strike ye, he left. one instance resembling this is when a, followed by i, becomes ö not ü → thöyü, please ye, corresponding to the lesh. thöriv.

In other case a remains unchanged, as in āsias, or āsīs, they were to him (lesh. āsīs), hākim, kāhira, trānū mālⁱ-sū, of thy father (lesh. chöñi mōlⁱ-sūdīs); wānwālīs, the shopkeeper.

3rd In lesh. when a is followed by u-matra or by u it becomes ö. Trees of him is sōrū but also sōrū corresponding to lesh. sōy sōmy. Another example to represent the sound - āsu (lesh. ās) but āwārū, and in mānū (lesh. mān). However, the a often remains as a in blāy or bhōi.

a brother, mān, ijān, 4 rān.

75 last. when i is followed by u-mātrā or by u, it becomes yu, as i dyat^u (for dit^u) The same usually occurs i last, as i dyat^uu, he gave; dyat^uu, than gave; mag^u (but also dyit^u); mag^u (for mil^u), he was forced.

In test. when \bar{e} is followed by \bar{i} -matra it becomes \bar{i} , and when it is followed by a -matra it becomes $y\bar{u}$. We have in test one ex. of what happens to \bar{e} in such circumstances - the ban ts̄hēr, a goat. Its hom.-sig. is tsyō²⁴ & its hom. pl. is ts̄hērⁱ not ts̄hyūr² and ts̄hūrⁱ.

In १८५६. when ō is followed by i-mātra or by u-mātra, or by a, it becomes ī, as a hūnī, pl. hūni from the base, hō-a dog. In १८५६, ō is such circumstances remains unchanged. Thus kōz, a dog, pl. kōnī

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~~As far as~~ I think, we have, however, *br̥idhi*, a sign
for an original *tr̥idhi*.

-- It will be seen that while a *peṭhālāi* vowel
changes do occur in *ksht*, they are subject to no
fixed law.

Consonants — In *ksht*, a final end consonant
is aspirated. This rarely occurs in *ksht*: *ḍolā*
(not *ḍolāh*), *ḍāik* (not *ḍāikh*), *pōshāh* (not *pōshākh*).
There are, however, a few examples of this
aspiration; *hētākh*, they began, *dyitakh*, they
gave, *mārākh*, they caused to be killed, and
thakh, with, *thākh*, there are.

In languages as a rule, do not
possess the so-called aspirates *gh*, *bh*, *dh*, *dh*,
or *bh*. They are, however, common in *ksht*,
and are entirely borrowed from western
languages. Thus, *ghar*, *ghar*; *ghar*, *ghar*;

(vīdhi, dhām (a feast); bhāyā, bhāis and
bhōckhi. We even have initial or medial
m becoming mh in mālā, (h) mālā; mhaṣṭ,
much; samrha, to become (but samrui), and timham for
timan. among them.

D languages show a tendency to harden
soft consonants. We have a good ex. of this in the
word askhach or askuchi, a ny, which is from a regular assaji.

Limit of difference between consonants and vowels:-

p. 249 badāvan, instead of baḍāvan, Bhukries dāas man,
in a few days, but see Bhukries, wōthi also
wōthi, zāt, even also zāt.

249 ksh. possesses a vowel r, which does not
exist in ksh. It is probably borrowed from Hindi
from Wotan Pahari. It is interchangeable with d, as
in urāwan or udāwan in. shav, giv, dōvan,
hiv, neav.

is lssst kyutā (lss. kyut⁴), how much, fen
kitsā (lss. kitsā²). So panus², an. fen. pāchā²;
tsāh⁴, thy fen. tsāh.

Is lss. h is liable to become sh, or more
 accurately, is liable to revert to as original
 sh. Thus the fen. of kyut⁴, like, is hū⁴. Is
 lssst the sh. appears also in the masc., as in
 mē pāshich māsūss hū bēhāyā, and he
loke their own servants.

349. DECLENSION. — Nouns

Corresponding to lss. first declension
 we have —

	sg.	plur
Nom.	ghar	ghār
Dat.	gharar	gharam
Ag.	ghararam	gharam
Abb.	ghar	

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(Corresponding to the (Cst. Second declaration:
It must be remembered that a final
"i" is often dropped, and ahi is ^{often} written \bar{e} s, yih
or ien. (Note also that the agau-sing
ends in in not in "i" as is lost.

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	mhāl th , a father	mhāl ⁱ
Dat.	mhālis	mhāliis
Ag.	mahālin	mahāliin
Abl.	mahāli	

En. of voc. ai mahāli & ai shurⁱis or aichurⁱ

352. Corresponding to the third declaration
of the country of fem. nouns in "i" or "u" we have
the following. As in the case of nouns of
the second declension in "i" often written \bar{e} or \bar{u}
and in is often written yih or ien.

Sing.	Plur.
Nom. kōri, daughter	kōri
Dat. kōri	kōrih
sg. abl. kōri	kōriān.

P. 353. Corresponding to the fourth declension in ksh.

Sing.	Plur.
Nom. kathi	katha
Dat. kathi	kathān
sg. nom. acc. kathi, katha	kathān

Sg. nom. - acc. bhain; dat. bhēnyi - hata, than the sister.
gāu, a cow, pl. nom. gāē.

Postpositions. — Postpositions are used as in ksh. It is noteworthy that the postpositions hata and nis, both meaning 'from', govern the dative, and not, as we might expect from the analogy of ksh., the ablative.

P. 354. A list of postpositions with the cases they govern:— hata, from (dat.)

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hata, from, for the sake of (abl. or abl. of gen.)

dūr dishas safar korun, he went to a far country
māra kārān-pata māḷujān, he wasted the property ^{action} in bad
zabai māhn, a good man; zabai māhi, good men.

Sometimes, however, the adj. is declined, - the more
in this case following the first declension of nouns. Thus
we have: - akis dūras mulka-sun safar korun

lachāran māhiēn (for helpless people)

As in ksh. adj. ending in u-mātrā agree with
the noun they qualify in gender, number and case.
It must be remembered that u-mātrā is often elided,
so that the adj. apparently ends in a consonant. This,
however, does not affect the rule. Even when the
u-mātrā is elided the adj. is treated as if it
ended in u-mātrā. Thus the pronominal adj.
miān, my, is just as often written miān, but
it is always declined as if it were miān,
and never as if it were miān.

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In *losh* the fem. termination corresponding to the masc. *u-mātrā* is *i-mātrā*. In *losh* it is *i-mātrā*, which, as often as not, is pronounced as a full *i*, as in the third declension of substantives. Thus, the fem. of *lōkur^u*, small is *lōkarⁱ* (*lōkari*). In fact, as the second & third declensions, ^u is often written *u* or even *ō* or *wa*, *i* is often written *i* or *i*, and *is* is often written *ën*, *yis* or *iën*.

Under the rules for epithesis certain consonants are liable to change in the fem., and in some cases, when they do not change in the nom. fem., they change in the other cases. Thus, the fem. of the *kāṣṭhī* bod^u, *grādⁱ* is *būdⁱ*, the dat. sing. of which is *bajō*. In *losh* these changes appear most capriciously, sometimes they

Adjs. ending in n^u (which is lost. becomes n^i in the fem.) appear to make their feminines pretty constantly in n^i . Thus $miān^u$, my, has its fem. $miān^i$; $trān^u$, my - fem. $trān^i$; $panun^u$, own, fem. $panān^i$. In the case of the last. word bad^u , great, the d is changed to j , even in the case of the nom. fem., which is baj^i . This is evidently due to the analogy of the other fem. cases. We therefore give the following declension of bad^u or $badd^u$, great.

	Masc.	Fem.
Sing. Nom.	$'bad^u$	baj^i
Dat.	$badis, badi$	$baji$
Acc.	$badib, badi$	$baji$
Abbl.	$badi$	$baji$
Plur. Nom.	$bade^i$	$baji$
Dat.	$badin$	$bajin$

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Note for use in the men-say. The abbl. can be optionally used for any other use.

There are one or two irregular adjs. The pronominal adj. *panun*ⁿ, own, optionally drops the second *n* in all cases except the nom. sing. Thus, *panis* for *pananis*; *pani* for *panani*, and so on. The word for 'ali' (Cf. Kol. *sāmy*) invariably adds an emphatic *i*. Thus the masc. sing. nom. is *sārii*, abl. *sāriwi* (for *sāri + i*); plur. nom. *sāri* (for *sāri + i*).

P. 357. The Genitive Case. - As in st-Kol. the genitive is an adj. and is declined as such. The prepositions of the gen. are *hun*ⁿ, *sun*ⁿ, and *u*ⁿ, corresponding to the Kol. *hond*ⁿ, *sond*ⁿ, and *uk*ⁿ respectively. These are used almost exactly as in Kol. *Hun*ⁿ is used with fem. nouns & with masc. plur. nouns. *Sun*ⁿ is used with masc. sing. nouns. Both these govern the dative, as in Kol., & as in that language, the *s* of *sun*ⁿ is the termination of the dat., so that *sun*ⁿ - *sun*ⁿ, of heaven,

is really āsmānas-sūn, for āsmānas-hi.
 Unlike st- ksh- sūn is used not only with animate
 but also with inanimate nouns, so that we have
āsmāna-sūn, where hi would have āsmānhi;
māla-sūn, of the property, where ksh. would
 have māluk; and mulla-sūn, of the country,
 where ksh. would have mulluk.

The postposition uk is, as is ksh., confined
 to inanimate masc. sing. nouns, as in gāmuk,
 of the village; mulluk, of the country. We thus
 see that either sūn or uk may be used with such
 as inanimate nouns as mulla, a country,

All these postpositions are declined, so that we have
 for sūn:- Sing. Fem.

Nom. sūn sūn, sī

Dat. sūnis, sini sīnī

Acc. sūni sīnī

Abbl. sini sīnī

Masc.	Fem.
Plur. Nom. sin^i	sih^i
Dat $sihin, sih$	$sih^i h$
Ag. abl. $sihiau$	$sihau$

Sun^u is sometimes written $sund^u$.

As usual there are numerous variants of these forms. The u of sun^u is very commonly dropped, so that we get sun . Similarly final i or u are often dropped, so that sin may represent sin^i or $sini$. Again y is often inserted before i , so that, e.g., $sinis$ and $sini$ become $sinjis$ and $sinji$ respectively. Again sometimes \ddot{e} and sometimes \ddot{i} is written for i or u , and $i\ddot{e}h$ or $\ddot{e}h$ for ih , so that sin^i and $sini$ may become $sin\ddot{e}$ or $sin\ddot{i}$, and $sihin$ may become $sin\ddot{i}\ddot{e}h$ or $sin\ddot{e}h$. All this exactly as in the case of nouns of the second and third declensions. Uk^u is declined as follows, it being remembered that uk is a spelling for uk^u as in the

case of *sun*^u.

Masc.

Fem.

Sing.

Nom. *uk*^u (*uk*)

*achi*ⁱ

- Dat. *akis*, *aki*

achi

Ag. *akin*, *aki*^u

achi

Abl. *aki*

achi

Plur.

Nom. *aki*ⁱ

achi

- Dat. *akin*

achin

Ag-Abl. *akian*

achian

Sometimes the genitive postpositions are omitted as in *gěwaněh*, for *gěwaněh-hun*^u, of singing, & *hatsaněh*, for *hatsaněh-hun*^u, of dancing.

P. 359. Adv. *is* agreement with genitives *is sin*^u *hun* are put in the dative, as in *tūras mulha-sun safor*, a journey of a far country.

Comparison. This is the usual. The usual

postpositions are *lata* and *nishi*. Thus:-

- *nishi Zabar*, better than

sāmi-nishi Zabar, better than all, best

bhēngi - lata bād, taller than the other.

P.360. Another mode of forming the superlative is *shun-i-
9 asala-nishē asal*, i.e. best.

Numerals. The word for 'one' is *ek* which is
either indeclinable as *is ek zari zēt shur² āsī*,
or else is declined as if from a nom. *ek² nak²*, its decl.
being *akis* or *akis*. [*akis mahānā zēt shuri āsī*].

Pronouns. - These closely follow V.S.L.

Personal Prons. The first two personal prons. are
declined as follows: -

	I	Thou
Sing.		
Nom.	<i>bōh, mē</i>	<i>tū, tsā</i>
		<i>tsē</i>
	Dat., ag. & abl. <i>mē</i>	
Plur.		
	<i>āsī, āsī</i>	<i>tsū, tsū</i>
	Dat., ag. & abl. <i>āsī, āsī</i>	

It will be observed that final 'i' is liable to be dropped, and that final 'i' is liable to be lengthened. The tū of second person connects kasit with Western Pahari while ts connects with ksh.

Instead of the genitive, the possessive pronouns mīāun, my; arun, our; tsāun, thy; and turun, your, are employed.

As usual the final u-mātrā is frequently dropped.

These are adjs.; & are regularly declined [as: declen. of bad], the feminines being mīānī; (1) sū; tsānī; and (1) turinī, tsū rusū, tsū respectively.

P. 361 mē tsānī tahl karas thus, I am doing thy service, the hom. of this pron. is mē, which is ~~prob~~ probably borrowed from the dadada mē.

P. 362 As in ksh. the Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, & Indefinite pronouns have, in the singular, separate forms for animate and inanimate objects. There are four forms for the animate pronouns.

In kor there is a defective pron., of whose class animate dat. sing. is ab, meaning 'that within sight', ab. is /sɬ/.
 ab. is /sɬ/.

Corresponding to the kor sub, he; tih, that (that within sight), we have the following. —

	SING.		PLUR.
	Animate	Inanimate	
Nom.	su, (fem. sa)	su (ti)	tim, (fem. tima)
Dat.	this, tyis, tyes	tath	timan
Gen.	ti-sun ^u , tyisun ^u , tēsūn ^u tyē-sun ^u	tathun ^u	timan hun ^u
Ag.	tin, tini	} timau
Abl.	tyis	(tēz)	

P.364. Corresponding to the emphatic ai & yi, we have tiai (i tiai-pata yab-mullen-sa sa the mēhram column). Tiai is 'that within sight'.

P. 365 Relative Pronoun. —

	SING.		PLUR.
	Animate	Inanimate	
Nom.	i, yi, yu	yi, yu	yim, fem. yima
Dat.	yis	yath	yiman
Gen.	yisun ²	(yathun)	yiman ² hun ²
Ag.	yin	(yin)	} yiman
Abl.	(yis)	yēi	

P. 366 The Interrogative: —

	SING.		Plur.
	Animate	Inanimate	
Nom.	kō	kyā	(kama, f. - kams
Dat.	kas	(kath)	(kaman)
Gen.	kasun ²	?	} (kaman)
Ag.	?	?	
Abl.	?	?	

The Indefinite Pronoun is *kū*, anyone, someone. Its oblique case is *kāsi*, as in *gāmbis kāsī wānawālis-hatā*, from some shopkeeper of the village. The corresponding inanimate form for 'anything', 'something' is *kēh* or *kēntā*.

Reflexive Pronoun.—The pronominal adjective is *panāñi*, (*panāñi*). [*panāñi yad*]. *panāñi* is an adjective. ~~and its~~ *ā-mā* becomes *panāñi* dropped. The second is also ³⁶ *panāñi* (But we find *pani* instead of *panāñi*).

	Masc.	Fem.
Sing. Sing.		
Nom.	<i>panāñi</i>	<i>panāñi</i> (<i>panāñi</i>)
Dat.	<i>panāñis</i>	<i>panāñi</i>
Ag.	<i>panāñi</i>	} <i>panāñi</i>
Abi.	<i>panāñi, pani</i>	
plur.		
Nom.		<i>panāñi</i>
Dat.		<i>panāñis</i>
Ag-Abi.		<i>panāñi</i>

P.368. Other Pronominal Forms:-

i-kēnta, whatever; yis-kēn. 'How much?' (pl.) 'How many?'
 is kyutā, f. kitsā; m. pl. nom. kityā, dat. kityān. In these
 the ā is really an interrog. or indefinite suffix added to kyut,
 kits, & kit.

Another word for 'how much?' and for 'how many?' is
 kitand. yūt, yūten. Then. probably yit's m. pl. probably yit.

Pronominal Adverbs are—

tēli, then; yēli when; tēli, there, tētē there; yēli, here;
 kyāzi, kyāza, why?

P.369. CONJUGATION - A. Auxiliary Verbs & Verbs Substantive.

Present—I am, etc.

SING.	1.	Masc. thas		Fem. ?
	2.	thak, thaks		?
	3.	thu		thū, thē
Plur.	1.	thū		?
	2.	thū		?
	3.	thū		?

This tense, like the 1st. Chhuk, he is, is adjectival, and has masc. & fem. forms. The ~~only form~~ ~~form~~ ~~used~~ As regards the use of this instead of Chhuk, we may compare the Chū of the dialect of the Delus Kidrista (Gāri, Maizā), the western Pahariābhi, he is (not); & the Prāthi this, ^{to become} The Pass is thus conjugated the Masc.
I was etc.

	Masc.
Sing.	
1	āsas, āsas
2	āsak, āsak, āsak, āsak
3	āsā, āsā, āsā
Plur.	
1	āsī
2	āsā, āsā
3	āsai, āsai, āsī, āsī

P. 370. B. — The Active Verb

The conjugation of the 1st. verb closely follows 1st. At 1st. there are three conjugations.

The first consists of all transitive verbs, and all impersonal verbs; the second of intransitive verbs which employ the first past participle is the formation of the past tenses; and the third of those intrans. verbs which employ the second past participle is the formation of the past tenses.

Ex. of impersonal verb — *riwan*, to lament.
past — *ryūwan* (for *ryūwan*), it was lamented by him; i.e. he lamented.
bēhan, to sit. ^{verbs of the second conjugation}

gātshun, to be proper

hēthun, to walk

lagun, to become alarmed, to begin

marun to be at (also 3rd conjugation)
marun to die

rihar, to remain

samaras, ~~samar~~ sambaras or sapras, to become

P. 371

Third Conjugation

gatsun, to go, to become

mulus, to be got (also second)

pien, to fall

giun, to come

The Infinitive ends in uñ, of which the final u-matāñ is commonly (as in kar.) omitted. Thus, tsotun or tsotun, to strike. Its abl. sing. masc. is, as in kar., used as an infinitive of purpose and ends in ani. Its fem., also used as in kar., ends in añ or añ. The rom. is, as usual, employed as a verbal noun. It is often used with the verb lagun, to form an inceptive compound. gēwanēn biga natiñāñ shor borin (gen. pl. postposition omitted)

The Present Participle is formed by adding an to the root as in tsotun, striking, tsotan, striking, or the

at the present day, this participle ends in ā, not ai; but ai is used in old language & also in ~~some~~ mod. poetry.

An irregular present participle is gacā, from gac, to come.
Past Participle. — A few correspond to the

first past participle of kr & l to the second.

3rd First Past Participle — As is kr, this is formed by adding a -mātr to the root, as in tsōt, stōt.

As usual the -mātr may be dropped, or may be represented by u, ā, or ō, so that instead of tsōt, we may have forms corresponding to tsōt, tsōtā, or tsōtō.

The masc. plur. ends in i-mātrā, as in tsōt, and, again we may have forms corresponding to tsōti or tsōtī. The fem. ends in i-mātrā as a tsōt ^{pl.} tsōtī.

There are irregular first past participles —

dūn, to give	dyut ^(1st past partic.) (dū dōtsi)
hēn, to take	hyut ^(1st past partic.) (hēn hētī)

rihūn, to remain	raṭṭ ^{3rd}
------------------	---------------------

As an example of a epenthetic change of consonants we have tsaci (kn. plur.), to see, from tsak, to hear.
Second Past Participle. - In tsak. This is formed by adding gōv to the root, as tsachgōv, from tsachkar, to see. The second perfect part of mitōv, to be got, is mitōmut; from which we infer that the 2nd. part partic. is mitōv. For the masc. plur. we have sammētēē.

1 regular 2nd past participles with 'are—

garden, 57.

բէս, ԼՅԲԵՍ

gira to come,

zu pass pass
gön

раёны

५३

The perfect part is formerly as yet
to the past. second part principle, as in "Hilomant", since.
As usual the first ~~is~~ in numbers often dropped, both
at the end of the past form, & at the end of the
or may be represented by the same sign as the present form.

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The fem. ends in matsi. Examples of the first and second perfect principals are— gats^hhun, to go

gats^hhun, to go, to become

1st or 2nd perf. part.

gōmut (irregular)

yūn, to come

āmūt (irreg.)

mīlun, to be got

mīyūlmūt

marun, to die

mūdmut

rachhun, to keep

rachlmūt, rachhmūt

rāzun, to lose

rāz^mmut, rāmūt

samzun, to become

samzumūt

For fem. we have:— karun, to make

karmatsi

For the 2nd perf. part. we have further, mīlōmūt (got), which shows that here mīlun is treated as belonging to the third conjugation, but mīyūlmūt shows that it also belongs to the second conjugation.

In ksh., the conjunctive part. is sometimes used instead of the perf. part. as in sub chhuh bihi, instead of sub chhuh bihi is seated. Here

ḡē is the conjunctive part.

Conjunct. Part. — The usual conjunct. part ends in *i* or *ī*, as in tṣōti, having struck. This is specially common in ~~ḡāḡṣi~~ intensive compound verbs. This form does not occur in *leṣh.*, but is common in *Pahārī* and *Lahndā*. Ex.

panāi dōlat bantō ditsin, he divided out his wealth
tin mā timhan bāthi ditruk, he divided out his property among them
bōh wāthi panāis mālīs hīstā gāṭṣā (similarly wōthi)

The word *kari* may be added to this part, as in ~~ḡāḡṣi~~ *Lahndā* & *Pahārī*, thus:

Lōkōn shunin sārūi khē jorī-kōn akis duras
mulka-sun safar kōn, the younger son, having collected everything, went to a far country.

Another form of the Conj. Part. ends in *it* or *a*, corresponding to the *leṣh.* form with the termination *it*. Thus ḡāḡṣi, having struck

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A third form of the conj. part. ends in ita, as
in tsōtita, having struck. In.

his tars āwas, dōritamālemeti ratun.

Finally in hakān, if it is a correct form, is a conj. part.
meaning having called.

~~Coming to the~~ We thus get the following list of the
non-finite parts of the verb tsōtun, to strike.—

Inf. n. — tsōtun or tsōtun, to strike; sing. abl. tsōtanis;
ben. sg. nom. tsōtanis or tsōtān.

Present Part. — tsōtan, striking

1st Past Part. — tsōt (tsōta, tsōtū; tsōtō), struck

2nd Past part. — tsōchou (?) struck

1st Perf. Part. — tsōt "mut" (tsōtmūt, tsōtmūt), been struck

2nd Perf. part. — (3rd conj.) — mitōmūt, been got

Conj. Participle —

(1) tsōti ^{tsōti} having struck

(2) tsōtān having struck

(3) tsōtith, tsōt-it, having struck

(4) tsōtita, having struck

(5) (1) tsōtū, having struck.

Coming to the finite parts of the verbs, the imperative is thus conjugated in the second person:—

^{sing.}
tsōt, strike thou

^{plur.}
tsōtū, strike ye.

Ex. of 3rd person. gi xōpai dgi tis, give this rope to him
mē bōnā hantē, walk before me.

P-375 sāmī-nishi just pōstāt kadī ānī, having taken as
the bes robe bring ye it.

The Future Indicative, also used as a Present Subjunctive, is thus conjugated:—

(shall strike, 'may strike')

^{sing.}

1. tsōta

^{plur.}

tsōtan

2. tsōtak

tsōtū

3. tsōti

tsōtan

[Allowing for variations in the future indicative, as in last.]

For the Past Conditional there is only one certain example! *karaha*, I might have made, is the first person sing. As it stands it is the same as in *hch.* P. 376. As in *hch.* the Present tense is formed by conjugating the present part. with the present tense of the verb substantive. The participle is unchanged throughout. It is thus conjugated in the masc.

'I strike' 'I am striking' etc.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. ^{sing} thus <u>tsōtan</u> | the ^{plur} <u>tsōtan</u> |
| 2. <i>thukh</i> <u>tsōtan</u> | <i>thōas</i> <u>tsōtan</u> |
| 3. <i>thū</i> <u>tsōtan</u> | <i>thū</i> <u>tsōtan</u> |

Similar for 'I go' we have *thus gatshā*, etc.

The Auxiliary Verb may precede or follow the participle. For the fem., the fem. of the auxiliary verb is used. The past. does not change.

The Imperfect is similarly made by conjugating the past tense of the verb substantive with the present participle. Thus *bōh* *tsus* tsōtan, I was striking.

En. tis kũ diwas āsũ hũ, no one was going to him.

PAST TENSES. - First Conj. The tenses formed from the past & perfect participles closely follow Sk. kṛt. There are the same three methods of conjugation, viz (1) with the subject fully expressed, and a pronominal suffix added to the participle; (2) with the subject indicated only by a pronominal suffix; and (3) with the subject fully expressed in the agent case and also by a pronominal suffix. (As in Sk. the first person pl. can only be indicated in the first method, the second person only in the second & third methods.)

past, 'I struck', literally, 'struck by me' etc

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	He was struck	8 he was struck	They (masc.) were struck	They (fem.) were struck
1. by me	mẽ tsot	mẽ tsot ⁱ	mẽ tsot ⁱ	mẽ tsöchi
3. by him	tis tsot	tis tsot ⁱ	tis tsot ⁱ	tin tsöchi

Past 'I struck' literally 'struck by me' etc.

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	He was struck	She was struck	They (male) were struck	They (fem.) were struck
Plur.				
1. by us	asē tsōt ^u	asi tsōt ⁱ	asi tsōt ⁱ	asēi tsōchi
2. by them	timau tsōt ^u	timau tsōt ⁱ	timau tsōt ⁱ	timau tsōchi
Sing.				
1. by me	(mē) tsōt ^{um}	(mē) tsōt ^{im}	(mē) tsōt ^{im}	(mē) tsōchim
2. by thee	(tsē) tsōt ^{uth}	(tsē) tsōt ^{ith}	(tsē) tsōt ^{ith}	(tsē) tsōchith
3. by him	(tin) tsōt ^{un}	(tin) tsōt ⁱⁿ	(tin) tsōt ⁱⁿ	(tin) tsōchin
Plur.				
1. by you	(tusi) tsōt ^{ēau}	(tusi) tsōt ^{iau}	(tusi) tsōt ^{iau}	(tusi) tsōchiau
2. by them	(timau) tsōt ^{uth}	(timau) tsōt ^{ikh}	(timau) tsōt ^{ikh}	(timau) tsōchikh

Ex. of Amelto: - tin zab^u, he said.

B method: - sing. 1st Persm. - mē gūhāh kōrum

tsāun^u zab^u zāt-phirum na, (here turned they came)

Second Persm. - mē zāt pūt dyituk na

P. 378 2nd Persm. - mē pūt dyituk na

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The perfect and Pluperfect tenses exactly follow (est.) substituting the last verb substantives for those of that language. Ex.

Perfect — *mē gubāh karmut thum*, I have done sin
bsāni mhālih baji dhām (lem) karmatⁱ thi, My
 father hath made a great feast.

R 379. Pluperfect. — *sāmut āvutⁱ tē myul*,
 he had been lost, and was found

The second conjugation also exactly follows (est.)

The First Past: sample: *samuzun*, to become

'I became,' etc.

Sing.		Plur.	
1.	(bōh) samuzus	1.	as samazi
2.	(tū) samozukh	2.	(tus) samazēaus
3.	sū samuz ^u	3.	tim ⁱ samazi
Plur.		Plur.	
1.	as samazi	1.	as samazi
2.	(tus) samazēaus	2.	(tus) samazēaus
3.	tim ⁱ samazi	3.	tim ⁱ samazi

En. Sing First Person. böh hanthur az m'ast dūr, I walked much to day.

Third person - su kangāl samukhuzun laḡ, &
su krūdhi samuz, andar gatskun laḡ na.

An instance of the Second Past of this conj. in samarēi, they (maic.) became. This corresponds to the 1st. separēy.
p. 380 For the Perfect we have -

su myubmut thu, now he has been got
For the Pluep~~er~~fect: mūdmut āsū (h't a voy twocr.)

The Third Conj. also closely follows 1st. Passd'ign
of Second Past or, gatskun, to go, to become:
'I went, I became' etc.

- | Sing. | Plur. |
|----------------|-------------|
| 1. (bōh) gōs | as gē |
| 2. (tū) gōch | (tur) gōana |
| 3. su gōu, gau | zim gē. |

En. Second Past of 1st Conj. -

su tōshar man āō

mān shahī shakhar tōshkhar tāt, and gōn.
bādī. kāl pōn.

For the Perfect of this conj. we have-
tsān shāy^u āmut thu
rāwmut āsū, hun mitōmut thu.

Passive. - According to Mr. Bailey, the passive is formed
by adding a to the root, and conjugating it with the
various parts of gats^hku, to go. Thus:-
bōh thus tsōta gats^hku, I am being struck
bōh āsus tsōta gats^hku, I was being struck
bōh tsōta gats^hku, I shall be struck.

The system employed is less, viz. adding the ablative
of the infinitive to yian, to come, also obars. Thus-
bōh thus māraha yūan, I am being struck
bōh āsus māraha yūan, I was being struck
bōh māraha yian, I shall be struck.

We have a potential passive, formed by adding
(^{tsān} shāy^u) a to the root is:- tsān^u shur^u zabāwa, I may
be called thy son.

P. 381. Cannot be the original method of forming

a causal root is to add *āw* to the origin root. Thus from *urān* or *uḍān*, to fly, we have *argāwan* or *uḍāwan*, to cause to fly, to squander. En.

Tisān māt bōzāwan laḡar, his father began to cause him to understand.

As usual there is a series of verbs whose root vowel is lengthened in the causal, as in the Hindi *marā, māṛā*. En. *agālar, nikhā, aṣā, pōshā, tīr, laḡā*.

In *lāṣ*, the causal of *khāṣ*, to rise, is *khāw* or *khāw*, to raise. In *kāṣ* the corresponding causal is *khāw*.
khāḥa - māṛa khāw pāw.

In the form *baṛāyān*, make me; *āy* has been added to the root instead of *āw*.

Pronominal Suffixes. Pron. suffixes are added to verbs as in sk. *lāṣ*. The suffixes of the agent case ^{with = + mahāgān at the 1st case} already dealt. Other cases:-

First Person Sing. The suffix is *m*, for all cases except the nom. *thā*. *thā* is the *pramāṇ* or *pramāṇ* *baṛāyān*, make me as one of thy servants

māla su hīsa ya mē wātim mē dīn
mīān hīsa dīgim.

Second Person Sing. - The Suffix of the 2nd person sing. for
all cases is s. After the letter i, this sometimes, thus -

ālis mahār zē thurī āsis

kākhya (ka) āsir

kū hīr hō dīwa āsur

hī fars āwas

kāchar (ka) āgar.

su Salāmat magī hus.

The following are case of double suffices
Agent 2 dat. sing., both third person - hendi dītimas,
kisses were gives by him to him.

quāmas (fa quāmas), it was asked by him to him.

zabūnas, it was said by him to him.

Agent 3rd pers. sing. & dat 2nd pers. plur. - hīnāl
timhar dā hī dītimas (for dītimas or dīgim), by him the
company was made by him to him.

p. 382.

Compound Verbs. — (Intensive Compounds) are formed, as usual, by using the first member in the form of the conjunctive participle. Thus

marī gōr ~~ch~~ son' died

~~panen~~ panen' dō'at banti ditsis, he divided ~~all~~ his
own property.

Inceptive compounds are formed with the infinitive,

